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The JOURNAL of EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

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EDITORIAL NOTES

The science of educational sociology has made notable progress in the last few years. This progress is partly accounted for in the development of a more adequate scientific technique in the field of sociology, the other social sciences, and in general social research. The most notable development, however, is in the field of educational sociology itself.

The last year has witnessed the appearance of THE JOURNAL which increasingly emphasizes social research as applied to education. THE JOURNAL has not only carried a department of research in which the various investigations in the field have been reported, but it has devoted a number of articles to the method, technique, and actual researches in the subject matter, school organization, and measurement of the results of education. It is hoped ultimately to make THE JOURNAL an organ of research in the newly developing science of educational sociology.

Among the other agencies of progress in the development of educational sociology as a science is the project under way in the School of Education of New York University, directed by Professor Frederic M. Thrasher, who has himself done notable research work in the study of communities and particularly the gang life of Chicago. The Bureau of Social Hygiene¹ has provided a large sum of money to undertake

¹ 61 Broadway, New York City

an investigation of the effect of a boys' club in New York City. This boys' club has facilities for six thousand members and carries on all sorts of activities in which boys are interested. The educational sociologist is interested in this piece of research not merely as an attempt to discover the educational effect of this boys' club itself but he is interested in ascertaining the extent to which the various agencies in the community are influential in the development of behavior in the youth of the community. The effect of the boys' club cannot be known until its influence is isolated from that of every other agency that affects the character and personality of the youth. Therefore, in making this study which is to extend over a period of years, it is hoped to do a completely original piece of work and especially to discover the influence of the educational institutions operating in the community. There is afforded here, then, in this special investigation an opportunity for a contribution to educational sociology not provided so far in its history. The outcome is bound to result in the definite advancement of the science.

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY is fortunate in the number of its enthusiastic readers. One of the letters received is so gratifying that we publish it in part.

"THE JOURNAL has followed me like a faithful friend during my winter in Europe. Your suggestion that I renew my subscription has recently arrived. Permit me to add my voice to the multitude of satisfied subscribers and tell you that I have enjoyed the magazine.

"I have had varying degrees of anxiety as well as complacency while reading the articles of each publication. But, now, at the close of the year I am satisfied it is not just another magazine of boring, school jargon but a live, scholarly magazine of contribution and discussion. There is a freshness in the viewpoint of many of the contributors, a wise adaptation to the ideas of this generation and a delightful faith in the living value of humanity."

CHILD GUIDANCE AND THE SCHOOL

H. L. Pritchett

Progress in the practice of education in what it seeks to do in the development of the child for full responsibility in life impresses one with the inadequacy of previous, and, to a large extent, present efforts to do the whole job. The conception of developing the "whole mind" by means of "disciplines," and the mind-body relationships are no more inadequate in the light of recent investigation into the social natures and needs of the child than present methods of school procedure. The enthusiasm of a few years ago over the education of the so-called instincts and the more recent elation over the possibilities of the measurement of innate capacity, as represented by the I.Q., mental age, and many other "ages," are likewise giving place to the conception of more complete understanding of the whole child through recent research in the field of social backgrounds and personality makeup.

The school came into existence to provide specialized environment for the development of the child, but it rapidly came to be so specialized that it has sought to develop the intellectual at a sacrifice of the emotional phases of personality. Educational philosophy declares that the objective of education includes more than the accumulation of knowledges, it includes the interpretation of knowledges and the development of the whole being in such ways as to produce the adjusted individual in his social background. The school, therefore, should be interested in the development of the entire personality, and in normal relationships, but in the past, and to a considerable extent at present it seems to select a very few personality factors and to seek their specialized development without conscious thought in regard to others. It is true that in many small ways the school has used tools

which are correct in developing neglected personality factors, but which have been inadequately used because little or nothing has been understood of their larger purposes. *Æsthetics*, the development of the arts, of skills, of factors which can be used to produce emotional development and balance, have not been approached from that angle except in a very few instances in the kindergarten and in some primary grades, and even there inadequately. This will not attain the goal of education.

It is important for one to have reliable information concerning the intellectual ability of the child from intelligence and other tests but this knowledge represents only a part of the child's equipment and for one to know a great deal about his intellectual equipment and very little about his other equipments is probably to magnify the significance of the intellectual factors and to minimize the factors which are not understood. To really know the child is to know a great deal about the entire background of his life, the intellectual, feeling, emotional experiences, as well as his general social setting. If there has not been great overemphasis of the intellectual, there has been at least great underemphasis of the feeling side of his education.

It is proper for the teaching profession to obtain guidance in its concepts and in its procedure from any reliable source if such guidance will assist it in solving the child's total problems, and the goal of education should direct the profession to adopt from other professions materials which will assist it in reaching that goal of child development. The child guidance movement, developing in connection with the medical profession, has much to offer to educational psychology and to school practice in this connection. In a sense it is an answer of the medical profession to the inadequate treatment which the child has received in his behavior development in the school as well as in the home.

Parents are everywhere seeking and receiving the benefits of the child guidance group and appreciate the assistance

which this branch of scientific investigation is bringing to the home, particularly during the preschool years, and also later, when delinquencies of the child have indicated need for reeducation. Clinicians say that in at least 80 cases out of 100, the problem of the child is one of readjusting the parent. A study of child-guidance clinic cases now in progress gives evidence that in the vast majority of cases the child difficulties seem to be the direct outcome of similar difficulties in the home. It is hardly possible that the school does not have an appreciable share of this situation, and is not in some degree responsible for its adjustment. The school is not brought into the clinic situation except in the formal factor of school grades, because the school furnishes little or no scientific evidence with reference to the behavior of the child. No usable records of an objective kind, or of an interpretable kind, are kept by the school. Its sole interest is apparently in the intellectual attainments as evidenced by school marks. The usual mark for "deportment" (or whatever term may be used to signify that item) is a subjective record of the teacher recorded in comparison with other school marks. The explanation of the lack of information on the behavior of the child in the school situation is simply that the teacher and school officials have not concerned themselves, and are not informed and hence not greatly interested, in the behavior problems of the child until he becomes "incorrigible." With the usual "lag," the school is hesitating to investigate and to adopt this newer contribution to educational procedure and what it may offer to improve schoolroom practice. Yet individual teachers in considerable numbers recognize some deficiencies in this direction. Perhaps it is a lack of leadership, perhaps lack of initiative, perhaps other uninvestigated reasons which have continued the condition in *status quo*. At least it must be conceded that, so far as the vast majority of teacher-pupil situations are concerned, the teacher knows little about the pupil's general background, his home relations, the social forces which have shaped his attitudes and

abilities. She is too busy with the intellectual processes, which means she puts comparatively less value upon others, to investigate his "history." She is not equipped to seek openings into the pupil's "inner world," seldom recognizes such openings when they are made by the child, and would not know how to interpret the insight gained. Such criticisms are made for the constructive purpose of emphasizing what the newer field of child guidance has to offer the classroom teacher, and are in no wise to be interpreted as an attack upon the teacher. New materials which are reliable, and which can improve the school conditions in fundamental ways, and some of the deficiencies of the school in these respects are presented together to suggest the importance of the use of these materials.

It should be noted that fourteen of the most important colleges and universities have become so much interested in the personality development of their students that they have started and are maintaining behavior clinics for their students. A few individual high schools and a very few elementary schools have awakened to the value of a better understanding of the behavior of the child and teachers and groups of teachers have gone to experts for assistance in this respect, and are maintaining either fully developed or embryonic school clinics. It is the opinion of authorities in educational sociology that behavior clinics are of such importance to the school that they are destined soon to become a part of the public school organization. Outside organizations are impressing themselves upon the schools in attempting to prevent behaviors leading toward delinquencies. The establishment of college clinics, as well as the efforts of outside organizations in this direction, suggest that the home and the lower schools have not given adequate attention to the problem of the guidance of personality development in the preschool and early school years. The college clinics suggest that the school and the home have allowed the child to come up through the formative years unadjusted, reaching the college in a condi-

tion of social instability and unadjustment. President Morgan of Antioch College recently emphasized the fact that college students need a more intelligent distribution of interests, saying, "Interest is more a form of energy than of intellect. Our young people come to us with ineffective, unbalanced, unwise interests. A large part of the business of the college, we believe, is effective presentation of suitable objectives of interest."

That the uninformed school is aiding the uninformed home in producing behavior disorders needs to be said constructively but with emphasis. A forthcoming study by Mr. E. K. Wickman, psychologist of the Institute for Child Guidance, a foundation of the Commonwealth Fund, offers ample evidence from teachers themselves to convince the most skeptical of their misconceptions of children's behaviors by comparing ratings on behavior items with ratings on the same items as given by child guidance experts. Understanding more of the feeling side of the child's life is as real a job for the teacher as understanding the teaching of knowledges. The behavior of the teacher in the classroom, moreover, seriously reflects upon the behavior of the child, and it is as true in New York City, Texas, and California as it is elsewhere that the teacher's behavior toward the child is frequently far inferior, as a pattern of behavior, to the child's behavior toward the teacher and fellow pupils. The school should give the child an adequate conception of the rôles which he should have in his social situations and thereby assist him in adjusting to present and later social situations, but the teacher who has not yet discovered her own social rôle in and out of the schoolroom is, indeed, an inadequate teacher and is more likely to suggest undesirable rôles than proper ones.

There is a social heritage behind the school lag which is making it difficult to bring about the desired change in the teacher-pupil behavior relations. In the first place, teachers usually teach very much as they were taught, especially in

matters of discipline. Again, each teacher carries from the home something of the methods of discipline and guidance of behavior of the home. These two institutions have been the ones and are still the ones which have so little understanding of the child and his personality development, hence the bifocal basis of the teacher's lag in behavior guidance. Educational psychology, even recently, has said comparatively little concerning the development of proper behavior patterns, because that science has investigated the emotions and feelings from the laboratory rather than from the social point of view. The child guidance group in the medical profession has made numerous experiments, established adequate techniques, and is getting desirable results in overcoming the shortcomings of the home and school, and it is high time that the teaching profession should understand from them more and more of the principles of procedure, lending all the coöperation possible in the solution of the problems of child behavior.

PERSONALITY AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

Harvey W. Zorbaugh

III

ORIGINAL NATURE

HOW WE LEARN

The infant is not many months old before it becomes evident to the most casual observer that many things have happened to the "squirmings" (of fingers, toes, arms, legs, trunk, head, vocal chords, and viscera) which constituted its unlearned behavior. For one thing, it "squirms" or responds to objects to which it was originally indifferent. Whereas it was only startled, at birth, by certain loud noises or by sudden loss of support, it may now show all the symptoms of "fear" at the buzzing of a fly on the window pane or at the sight of a dog. Whereas it only cried with discontent when it was pricked or pinched, hungry or fatigued, or otherwise "uncomfortable," it may now cry when the light is turned out or it is left alone. Whereas it only exhibited "rage" when its bodily movements were hampered, it may now stiffen and scream until it is "blue in the face" every time its nurse appears in the doorway. And so with its other sorts of squirmings. Its responses have become attached to stimuli which originally did not call them out. Its world is beginning to take shape, the objects about it to have a "meaning."¹ The attachment of responses to objects which originally did not elicit them is known as *positive adaptation*.

It becomes evident, further, that the infant's "squirmings" are becoming organized and adaptive. Whereas, at birth, it responded to being placed face downward with crying and spasmodic contractions of arms, legs, and trunk, it now

¹ The meaning of an object consists merely in the responses which the object calls out the impulses to which it gives rise. See Wheeler and Cutsforth "Synaesthesia and Meaning," *American Journal of Psychology*, 1922, pp. 361-84.

turns itself over without ado and with little waste effort. Whereas it formerly responded to the sight of its bottle with a lively and general bodily squirming; it now reaches for the bottle, grasps it, and puts it in its mouth in a businesslike manner. Other "squirmings" are becoming organized into crawling, walking, and talking. It is noticeable that, as these habits are built up, superfluous, useless movements are eliminated. The infant's behavior in general becomes less random. Particular responses become progressively adapted to the stimulating object or situation. We refer to this process as *the refinement of adaptation*.

Finally, as the infant grows older, certain stimuli which originally called out marked responses may come to elicit merely a passive fixation of attention, or perhaps no response at all. This is strikingly evident in the adult. The worker in the steel mill or the boiler shop pays scant attention to sounds that would call out a paroxysm of "fear" in the young infant. The process whereby an originally adequate stimulus becomes inadequate to elicit a response is known as *negative adaptation*.

Positive adaptation, the refinement of adaptation, and negative adaptation are known collectively as *learning*. We are discussing learning as a part of original nature, because the mechanisms involved are common to all individuals and are present at birth. While it has been possible to demonstrate that in man learning is a function of the nervous system, it has been impossible as yet to describe the events which occur in the nervous system during the process of learning. Consequently, we must proceed to discuss learning in terms of behavior.^a

POSITIVE ADAPTATION

The question of why an infant which originally showed "fear" only at loud noises and loss of support should now be "afraid" of dogs, flies, men with beards, the dark, and

^a Perhaps the best discussions of the neural basis of learning will be found in Sherrington *The Integrative Action of the Nervous System*, Herrick, *An Introduction to Neurology*, and Watson *Psychology from the Standpoint of a Behaviorist*.

a hundred other objects or situations can best be answered after a visit to the laboratory of a Russian physiologist named Pavlov. The story begins with a dog. Some years ago, in experimenting with salivation in dogs, Pavlov discovered that if some visual, auditory, or tactual stimulus is made the invariable accompaniment of a saliva-exciting food for a given time, the auditory, visual, or tactual stimulus (originally inadequate to call out salivation) will elicit the salivary flow without the food. Thus Pavlov was able, by the association of the ringing of a bell, the flashing of a light, the scratching of the thigh with the presentation of food, to make a bell, a light, or a scratch an adequate stimulus to salivation. Such a response to a substituted and originally inadequate stimulus is known as a *conditioned response*. The stimulus which elicits the conditioned response is known as a *substituted stimulus*. Pavlov and his students were not long in demonstrating that many responses of the dog can be similarly conditioned.^a

Other investigators soon showed that the responses of human beings can be conditioned quite as readily as those of the dog. Watson and Lashley showed that salivation can be conditioned in the human subject—the sight of the medicine dropper used to apply acid to the tongue for the experiment, for example, soon becoming a substituted stimulus. Now salivation is due to the secretion of a gland. Other glands than the salivary can be similarly conditioned. Bogen conditioned the secretion of the glands of the stomach. He had under treatment a child who had an obstruction of the throat. A fistula was made in the abdominal wall and stomach through which the child was fed during the process of cure. An experiment in conditioning the stomach glands is reported as follows: "The child was fed for a long time—in all, over forty times—with meat, while simultaneously a certain tone was blown upon a small trumpet. Finally in ten

^a Burnam, *The Normal Mind* p. 63 ff., gives a most interesting description of the condition of Pavlov's experiment. It is particularly significant as demonstrating that a high degree of control is possible in experimenting with behavior. See also J. P. Pavlov, "L'excitation psychique des glandes salivaires," *Journal de Psychologie*, 1910, pp. 107-14.

trials of the blowing of the trumpet seven were followed by secretion and only three were negative."⁴

Twitmyer, as early as 1902, had accidentally discovered in the course of an experiment on the knee jerk that if the ringing of a bell accompanies the striking of the patellar tendon with a hammer for a few times it will then cause the knee jerk by itself. This indicated that the responses of the striped muscles can be conditioned as well as those of the glands. Bechterew, another Russian physiologist, and his students have since demonstrated by careful experiment that the responses of fingers, arms, legs, and trunk can be conditioned. If the hand rests upon a metal plate, for instance, one receives a shock when a current is turned through the plate and the hand is jerked back. Now if a bell is rung, or a light is flashed each time the current is turned on, the ringing of the bell or the flashing of the light will soon become adequate to cause the jerking back of the hand without the aid of the shock.

Considerable work has been done, as well, on the experimental conditioning of those responses involving the unstriped muscles. There are two sets of unstriped muscular fiber in the eye. When one set contracts the pupil dilates. When the other set contracts the pupil grows smaller. The original stimulus to dilation of the pupil is a decrease in light intensity; to the contraction of the pupil an increase in light intensity. Cason has shown that if a bell is sounded as the intensity of light falling on the retina is either increased or decreased, both dilation and contraction of the pupil can be conditioned upon the sounding of the bell. Since all our responses are compounded of the contractions of the striped and unstriped muscles and the secretion of the glands, it would seem probable that any response may be conditioned.⁵

⁴ H. Bogen, "Experimentelle Untersuchungen über psychische und assoziative Magensaft-Sekretion beim Menschen," *Jahrbuch für Kinderheilkunde*, 1907, pp. 733-40.

⁵ See K. S. Lashley, "Reflex Secretion of the Human Parotid Gland," *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 1916, pp. 461-93; H. Cason, "The Conditioned Eyelid Reaction," *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 1922, pp. 153-96; V. M. Bechterew, *La Psychologie Objective* (Paris, Alcan, 1913); F. Macear, *Child Behavior*, 1917; E. B. Twitmyer, *A Study of the Knee Jerk*, 1902; J. B. Watson, "The Place of the Conditioned Reflex in Psychology," *Psychological Review*, 1916, pp. 89-116; J. B. Watson and R. Raynor, "Conditioned Emotional Reactions," *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 1920, pp. 1-14.

By all odds the most interesting and significant experiments with the conditioning of responses in human beings have been Watson's with the conditioning of "fear" in infants. These experiments were carried on with infants that had been reared in Watson's hospital nursery. We will describe the experiment in Watson's own words.

We chose as our first subject Albert B, an infant, weight twenty-one pounds, at eleven months of age. Albert was the son of one of the wet nurses in the Harriet Lane Hospital. He had lived his whole life in the hospital. He was a wonderfully "good" baby. In all the months we worked with him we never saw him cry until after our experiments were made!

Our first experiment with Albert had for its object the conditioning of a fear response to a white rat. We first showed by repeated tests that nothing but loud sounds and removal of support would bring out fear response in this child. Everything coming within twelve inches of him was reached for and manipulated. His reaction, however, to a loud sound was characteristic of what occurs with most children. A steel bar about one inch in diameter and three feet long, when struck with a carpenter's hammer produced the most marked kind of reaction.

Our laboratory notes showing the progress in establishing a conditioned emotional response are given here in full:

Eleven months, 3 days old. (1) White rat which he had played with for weeks was suddenly taken from the basket (the usual routine) and presented to Albert. He began to reach for the rat with left hand. Just as his hand touched the animal the bar was struck immediately behind his head. The infant jumped violently and fell forward, burying his face in the mattress. He did not cry, however.

(2) Just as his right hand touched the rat the bar was again struck. Again the infant jumped violently, fell forward, and began to whimper.

On account of his disturbed condition no further tests were made for one week.

Eleven months, ten days old. (1) Rat presented suddenly without sound. There was steady fixation but no tendency at first to reach for it. The rat was then placed nearer, whereupon tentative reaching movements began with the right hand. When the rat nosed the infant's left hand, the hand was immediately withdrawn. He started to reach for the head of the animal with the forefinger of his left hand but withdrew it

suddenly before contact. It is thus seen that the two joint stimulations given last week were not without effect. He was tested with his blocks immediately afterwards to see if they shared in the process of conditioning. He began immediately to pick them up, dropping them and pounding them, etc. In the remainder of the tests the blocks were given frequently to quiet him and to test his general emotional state. They were always removed from sight when the process of conditioning was under way.

(2) Combined stimulation with rat and sound. Started, then fell over immediately to right side, no crying.

(3) Combined stimulation. Fell to right side and rested on hands with head turned from rat. No crying.

(4) Combined stimulation. Same reaction.

(5) Rat suddenly presented *alone*. Puckered face, whimpered, and withdrew body sharply to left.

(6) Combined stimulation. Fell over immediately to right side and began to whimper.

(7) Combined stimulation. Started violently and cried, but did not fall over.

(8) Rat alone. *The instant the rat was shown the baby began to cry. Almost instantly he turned sharply to the left, fell over, raised himself on all fours and began to crawl away so rapidly that he was caught with difficulty before he reached the edge of the mattress.*^a

Watson thus clearly demonstrated that "fear" can be conditioned. If we recall our description of the unlearned "fear" response, we see that "fear" involves glands of internal and external secretion, striped and unstriped muscles (the whole motor and visceral system), is a complex, total bodily response. Thus Watson's experiments with "fear" increase the probability that any and all bodily responses may be conditioned.

Watson next set out to determine whether conditioning "fear" on one object (in this case a rat) might result in "fear" becoming attached to similar objects:

Before the above experiment on the rat was made, Albert had been playing for weeks with rabbits, pigeons, fur muffs, the hair of the attendants, and false faces. What effect will conditioning him upon the rat have upon his response to these

^a Watson, *Behaviorism*, pp 118-20. See also *Psychologies of 1925* (edited by Murchison)
 "Experimental Studies of the Growth of the Emotions"

animals and other objects when next he sees them? To test this we made no further experiments upon him for five days. That is, during this five-day period he was not allowed to see any of the above objects. At the end of the sixth day we again tested him, first with the rat to see if the conditioned fear response to it had carried over. Our notes are as follows:

Eleven months, fifteen days old.

(1) Tested first with blocks. He reached readily for them, playing with them as usual. This shows that there has been no general transfer to the room, table, blocks, etc.

(2) Rat alone. Whimpered immediately, withdrew right hand, and turned head and trunk away.

(3) Blocks again offered. Played readily with them, smiling and gurgling.

(4) Rat alone. Leaned over to the left side as far away from the rat as possible, then fell over, getting up on all fours and scurrying away as rapidly as possible.

(5) Blocks again offered. Reached immediately for them, smiling and laughing as before.

This shows that the conditioned response was carried over the five-day period. Next we presented in order a rabbit, a dog, a sealskin coat, cotton wool, human hair, and a false face.

(6) Rabbit alone. A rabbit was suddenly placed on the mattress in front of him. The reaction was pronounced. Negative responses began at once. He leaned as far away from the animal as possible, whimpered, then burst into tears. When the rabbit was placed in contact with him he buried his face in the mattress, then got up on all fours and crawled away, crying as he went. This was a most convincing test.

(7) The blocks were next given him, after an interval. He played with them as before. It was observed by four people that he played far more energetically with them than ever before. The blocks were raised high over his head and slammed down with a great deal of force.

(8) Dog alone. The dog did not produce as violent a reaction as the rabbit. The moment fixation of the eyes occurred the child shrank back and as the animal came nearer he attempted to get on all fours but did not cry at first. As soon as the dog passed out of his range of vision he became quiet. The dog was then made to approach the infant's head (he was lying down at the moment). Albert straightened up immediately, fell over to the opposite side and turned his head away. He then began to cry.

(9) Blocks were again presented. He began immediately to play with them.

(10) *Fur coat (seal)*. Withdrew immediately to the left side and began to fret. Coat put close to him on the left side, he turned immediately, began to cry, and tried to crawl away on all fours.

(11) *Cotton wool*. The wool was presented in a paper package. At the ends the cotton was not covered by the paper. It was placed first on his feet. He kicked it away but did not touch it with his hands. When his head was laid on the wool he immediately withdrew it but did not show the shock that the animals or fur coat produced in him. He then began to play with the paper, avoiding contact with the wool itself. Before the hour was up, however, he lost some of his negativism to the wool.

(12) Just in play W. who had made the experiments, put his head down to see if Albert would play with his hair. Albert was completely negative. The two other observers did the same thing. He began immediately to play with their hair. A Santa Claus mask was then brought and presented to Albert. He was again pronouncedly negative, although on all previous occasions he had played with it.⁷

This phenomenon of the spread of a response conditioned upon a specific object or situation to somewhat similar objects or situations is known as *transference*. It occurs in the conditioning of motor as well as of visceral responses. There is a similar transfer of the response to objects which happen to be associated with the situation in which the conditioning occurs. Thus "fear" may become attached to seemingly irrelevant details of the situation in which it is aroused; and these details may later elicit "fear" in quite a different context. Moreover, whenever an object (say a rat) through conditioning becomes an adequate stimulus to "fear," it in turn can be used in place of a loud noise or loss of support to condition fear upon still other objects. So "fear" spreads to an ever widening circle of objects and situations—especially in the uncontrolled environment of the home, playground, school, and community.

The observations of Watson, Gesell, Mary Carney Jones, and others demonstrate that conditioning is constantly going

⁷ Watson, *Behaviorism*, pp 119-20

on, almost from the moment of birth. Gesell describes one infant who in the first day of his life "cried at every pronounced new stimulus—as soon as he was picked up he cried; he ceased to cry when allowed to lie quiet. In two weeks his social environment induced a complete reversal of this relationship between stimulus and response. He cried while he was in his crib; he ceased to cry when picked up. If he learned this in two weeks what can he not learn in two months, in four months?"

Mary Carney Jones has made an interesting study of smiling in infants. She finds that conditional smiling—smiling when the experimenter smiles or says babyish words (visual and auditory stimuli substituted for the original tactual and visceral stimuli)—begins to appear around the thirtieth day. At the Heckscher Foundation she investigated smiling and crying in a group of children who had been brought up in homes but were living temporarily at the Foundation. The children ranged from sixteen months to three years in age. Mrs. Jones followed them around from the time they first awoke in the morning until they finally went to sleep at night, noting the situations which caused smiling and laughter, and crying. More than one hundred distinct situations elicited crying. Eighty-five called out smiling and laughter. The situations most frequently provoking smiling and laughter, listed in order, were being played with (playfully dressed, tickled, etc.); running, chasing, romping with other children; playing with toys (a ball was particularly effective); teasing other children; watching others at play; making efforts which resulted in adjustment (e. g., getting parts of toys or apparatus to fit together and work); and making sounds, more or less musical, on the piano, with a mouth organ, singing, pounding, etc. While some of these situations, such as romping or being playfully dressed, involve actual stimulation of sensitive zones; the majority of the eighty-five situations are substituted stimuli—quite obviously so in watching other children at play or making successful adjustments.

Watson found that young children who have been reared in the uncontrolled environment of the home show a bewildering variety of fears. Here is the list of things one three-year-old youngster feared: "Darkness, all rabbits, cats, dogs, fish, frogs, insects, mechanical animal toys. This infant may be playing excitedly with his blocks, but when a rabbit or other animal is introduced all constructive activity ceases. He crowds toward one corner of his pen and begins to cry 'Take it away, take it away!'" Other children showed different sets of fears, fear of buzzing flies, houses, lightning, thunder, high places, water, many persons, the hissing radiator, and so on. The variety of conditioned fears, even in three year olds, is well-nigh infinite.

The "rage" response becomes conditioned as early as does the "fear" response. Of the more than one hundred situations which Mrs. Jones found to provoke crying, those which most frequently resulted in crying were having to sit on the toilet chair, having things taken away, having the face washed, being left alone in the room, having the adult leave the room, working at something which won't pan out, failure to get adults and children to play or watch or talk, being dressed, failure to get picked up by an adult, being undressed, being bathed, and having the nose wiped. Many of these situations involve hampering and thwarting of activities and are perhaps unconditioned rage responses. Others are quite obviously conditioned rage responses. The mere sight of the person (such as nurse or physician) who hampers the infant's movements soon calls out "rage." Then an entire stranger who in some way resembles this person will call out the response. Objects associated with the hampering situation, such as the bathroom or the clinic room, may call it out. "Rage," like "fear" and other responses, is constantly being conditioned, now upon one object, now upon another, in an ever growing series.

So conditioning can be observed in every aspect of the infant's behavior. The whole group of responses connected

with feeding becomes conditioned at a very early age. If the infant is bottle-fed, the sight of the bottle soon comes to call out the liveliest sort of bodily movements and crying. If the infant is fed by a person who has no other contacts with it, the mere sight of this person may come to call out these responses. Blinking originally is elicited only by contact with the cornea. But objects which touch the eye frequently cast a shadow. A shadow rapidly crossing the eye soon comes to provoke blinking. If the infant of three months is placed on the toilet chair every time he is found dry, contact with the chair can be made to call out urination. Defecation can similarly be conditioned with the aid of a glycerine or soap suppository. Manipulation of the sex organs apparently may also become conditioned at an early age. Watson reports the case of a girl about a year old, who, while sitting in the bathtub and reaching for the soap, accidentally touched the external opening of the vagina. The reach for soap stopped at once, stroking of the vagina began, and a smile spread over the infant's face. As habits of reaching, manipulation, crawling, and walking develop they quickly become conditioned upon a multiplicity of objects. This process of the conditioning of responses, the substitution of stimuli resulting in positive adaptation, goes on constantly throughout infancy, childhood, and adult life. We cannot "explain" conditioning, cannot analyze it into events within the nervous system. But we are rapidly learning much about the conditions under which it occurs and how it may be controlled.⁸

⁸ See Baldwin and Stecher, *The Psychology of the Pre-School Child*, 1924, Burnham, *The Normal Mind*, 1924, Gesell, *The Mental Growth of the Pre-School Child*, 1926, M. C. Jones, *The Development of Early Behavior Patterns in Young Children* (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Columbia University, 1926), J. B. Watson, *Behaviorism*, chs. VI, VII, VIII, J. B. Watson, "The Pre-Kindergarten Age—A Laboratory Study," *Kindergarten and First Grade*, 1920, pp. 14-18, 68-72, 105, J. B. Watson, "The Behaviorist Looks at Instincts," *Harpers*, July 1927, J. B. Watson and R. Raynor, "Studies in Infant Psychology," *Scientific Monthly*, December, 1921, H. Woolley, "Personality Studies of Three-Year-Olds," *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, December 1922.

It may be well to reemphasize the fact, made clear by the above experiments, that the behavior of our internal organs (our "involuntary" or visceral behavior) is conditioned just as is our overt behavior. Though remarks of these visceral conditionings "The most frequent are probably connected with the large intestine and the bladder. Certain conditions which have no logical bearing upon the functions of these organs will regularly arouse them to inconvenient activity." A friend of the writer cannot mislay an article and begin to search for it without having an immediate awakening of the colon to energetic movements. On some occasion in the past there was probably a coincidence of the two circumstances and a cross-tie between the two mechanisms has remained. Such a tie has undoubtedly an anatomic existence, though we

Through repetition, the tendency of the response to follow the stimulus becomes better established. This is evidenced in a *shortened reaction time*—a prompter sequence of stimulus and response. It is evidenced by a *decrease in the threshold of stimulation*. The intensity of the stimulus may be reduced to a point at which it formerly would not have elicited the response. For example, after we have been conditioned to get up when the alarm clock rings, the clock may gradually be moved farther and farther from the bed until its ringing is far too faint to have awakened us when the response was first established. With repetition of a response there is also *increased resistance to distraction*, less likelihood of the response being interrupted or inhibited by the simultaneous occurrence of another stimulus. Responses involving considerable visceral behavior—those commonly called emotional—are probably more easily established than more largely segmented and overt responses. Many cases have been observed in which fears have been established seemingly by a single violent stimulation. Emotional responses also are more resistant to distraction and inhibition—indeed Allport has termed them *prepotent responses* because of the fact that, as well as being resistant to distraction and inhibition themselves, their stimulation is likely to distract or inhibit any other response which may be active at the time. Finally, emotional responses seem capable of a greater reduction in the threshold of stimulation than do others.

Pavlov discovered that if a dog has been conditioned upon several stimuli, the simultaneous occurrence of two or more of these stimuli will result in a marked increase in the response. If salivation has been conditioned upon the ringing of a bell, the flashing of a light, and the scratching of the thigh, the simultaneous occurrence of these stimuli results in the secretion of a considerably greater number of drops of saliva. The same has proved true of human responses. This phenomenon is known as *summation*.

do not expect to have it pointed out post mortem in the mazes of the brain. Outbreaks of perspiration in certain circumstances may be explained in similar ways." T. Hough, "The Classification of Nervous Reactions," *Science*, 1915, pp. 208-417.

A stimulus which is below the threshold of stimulation may yet elicit a response if it is repeated over and over again (provided, of course, the response has been conditioned upon that class of stimulus). Or a number of diverse stimuli, any one of which is of inadequate intensity to elicit a response, may elicit a response when occurring simultaneously. Summation is apparent here also. Summation of stimuli is extensively used in advertising. Thousands smoke Chesterfield cigarettes because they have been assailed from countless billboards by the slogan "they satisfy," or chew Spearmint gum because newspaper advertisements have told them over and over that "it aids digestion"

THE REFINEMENT OF ADAPTATION

As we have noted, the infant's responses not only rapidly become attached to new objects and situations, but they quickly become more effectively adopted to the situations which provoke them. Useless part reactions are eliminated from the response. What originally were separate responses became combined and integrated. We have already used as illustration the infant's learning to turn over when placed face downward on an unyielding surface. The first time he is so placed, he responds with random, unconditioned squirming of arms, legs, trunk and head, crying, and visceral changes. As a result, he usually flops over onto his back after a period of struggling. But watch him after he has repeatedly been placed in this situation. He turns over with a minimum of squirming. Useless part reactions—spasmodic arm, leg, and trunk movements, crying, and visceral changes—have largely disappeared. There remains an effective sequence of movements which tend to adjust the infant to the situation. This process is known as *the refinement of the response*. Simple refinements of this sort we refer to as *motor habits*, or merely as habits. The more elaborate refinements that are acquired later in life, such as typewriting, playing the saxophone, golfing, or swimming, we refer to as *skills*.

The psychologist can give what is probably a fairly accurate description of what occurs in the refinement of a response. We have previously referred to the fact that every response the individual makes results in his being assailed by new stimuli—both kinæsthetic stimuli resulting from movements of his muscles, and stimuli from without. We have termed these *movement-produced stimuli*, and have observed a few rudimentary patterns in the infant's unlearned behavior which result from them—for example, nursing. Such responses we have called *serial responses*—that is, a series of responses in which each response results in stimuli which set off the succeeding response. A habit would seem to be merely a serial response that has been learned, built up through experience.

Let us take the playing of Yankee Doodle on the piano, for instance; and let us suppose that the striking of the various keys has already been conditioned upon the sight of the various notes. As we follow the score the sight of each note calls out the striking of a given key. We follow the score through a few times. Now we can play Yankee Doodle without looking at the score. What has happened? Evidently the striking of each note has been conditioned upon the kinæsthetic and auditory stimuli arising from the striking of the preceding note; and the whole series has been conditioned upon the stimulus "Yankee Doodle." A serial response has been built into our behavior. Conditioning is evidently the key to the refinement of adaptation as well as to positive adaptation. All motor habits and skills are serial responses similarly built up. Just as we learned to play Yankee Doodle, we learn to find our way about the house without bumping into chairs and tables, to dress while we plan the day's work, to dance while we exchange small talk with a charming partner, to write without a copybook, and a thousand other things. As our repertory of serial responses increases, we frequently find already existing serial responses being combined to meet new situations. The person who has learned to swim, and to

control the breath in diving, learns to swim under water by combining these responses—not through a building up of a complete new adjustment out of elementary responses of arms, legs, and visceral organs. The extent to which a serial response can become dependent upon kinæsthetic stimuli is illustrated by the case of a blind boy who was a college classmate of the writer. After he had been on the campus a few months he could make his way from building to building without the aid of another's guidance or the use of a stick, even while engaged in animated conversation. Kinæsthetic stimulation explains the larger part of the automatism of habit.⁹

If a serial response has been built up by repetition in a given situation it may be weakened, slowed up, interrupted, or inhibited by a change in one or more elements of the situation. Watson found that rats that had learned to run a maze which was set in a room lighted from one direction had largely to learn over again when the maze was rotated ninety degrees. The successive responses involved in running the maze had been partly conditioned upon the way the light was reflected from the walls of the maze. Carr found that University students who had learned a series of nonsense syllables in one laboratory experienced great difficulty in repeating the series when transferred to another laboratory. Habits always function most efficiently in the familiar situation. The writer knows a journalist who after an interview invariably goes to the nearest restaurant, orders a cup of coffee, and sits down to write his story. He rarely drinks the coffee, and yet if he is unable to get coffee writing is difficult. The lecturer who often uses a pointer to indicate on maps or charts finds it easier to talk with a stick in his hand. A cup of coffee

⁹ Dean Withers of the School of Education of New York University vouches for the following story which amusingly illustrates the role of movement-produced stimuli in the functioning of the serial response. A citizen of the Queen City had an address to deliver. Having written it, he set out to learn it during his lunch hours. He would rehearse the first half of it on his way to the restaurant, eat his daily ham sandwich, and rehearse the last half of it as he returned to the office. By the date set for the address he could repeat it perfectly. But when he came to give it he got half through and could go no farther. Had there been a ham sandwich instead of a water pitcher in front of him on the table he might have been able to finish.

Watson found that after a rat had learned to run the maze without error, an unaccustomed stimulus (such as a sound) might yet cause the rat to make an error. When this occurred the rat was hopelessly lost. The continuity of the serial response had been broken.

will not start the reporter to writing, nor a stick the lecturer to talking—but coffee and stick facilitate these responses. This phenomenon is known as *facilitation*. It is due to various of the part reactions which make up the total response having been conditioned upon elements of the stimulus—situation. Whereas in summation the stimuli are subliminal and occur serially, in facilitation the stimuli, while usually subliminal, must occur simultaneously.¹⁰

With repetition there is a shortening up of the serial response due to a telescoping of its parts. Smith and Guthrie have described this process as follows:

In such a practised act as picking up a book from the floor, we do not first turn toward the book, then walk to the spot, bend the body, extend the arm, and grasp the book, all separately. We are more likely to start walking as we turn, bend the body and extend the arm as we walk, and, while grasping the book, turn the body preparatory to walking away.

When a number of acts form a serial response, one act is seldom completed before the next is begun. In this way there is an *overlapping of compatible movements*, orientation for the next act occurring while the movements of intervention of the last act are still in progress. This telescoping of one act with another is one of the factors in shortening the time of a serial response.

Where overlapping of acts occurs, more movements are made at the same time, and so more movement-produced conditioning stimuli are available to knit together the parts of the series.

As a series of acts is repeated time and again, the degree of overlapping of the individual acts increases more and more, until limited by the anatomical structure of the animal or by the requirements of the situation. This overlapping is made possible by the fact that many conditioning stimuli have been acting for some time before the response that they have come

¹⁰The role of facilitating stimuli is interestingly illustrated by an incident related by Bostock in *The Training of Wild Animals*. "Some time ago the band of a traveling show went on strike in the middle of a performance and left in a body. Three trained tigers were the next feature on the program. When they came on they looked inquiringly at the orchestra for the music, and then two of them quietly settled down on their haunches and refused to go on. The third, who was of less experience, made a feeble start and then joined his companions on strike. Orders, commands, threats, and flickings of the whip were useless. No music, no performance, was obviously the motto of these tigers, and they stuck to it until the trainer, finding that to try to force them farther was dangerous, was obliged to let them return to their cages without giving any performance at all." Bostock feared he never could get the tigers to perform again, but the next day when the musicians had returned to work the tigers went through their act as usual.

to condition has occurred. As we approach a door and finally see the keyhole we reach for our keys. Later, because we saw the door while reaching for the keys, we take out our keys when we first come in sight of the door. Reaching for one's keys having been established as a response to the sight of the door may occur while opening the gate, provided the door is in view. Thus the response may next be conditioned by the gate opening, and later still by the sight of the gate in the distance.¹¹

Much experimentation has gone on as to the conditions under which serial responses may be most effectively built up. This is the field of educational psychology, and we will not go into it here. The relationship of the nature of the material to be learned, the length of the series to be learned, the length and frequency of practice periods, the learning situation, of whole and part learning, of the learning of meaningful and "nonsense" material, of the interference of old habits, of the emotional facilitation of learning, of fatigue, drugs, and the age of the learner to the building up of serial responses are among its problems.¹²

While we can give a fairly adequate if oversimplified description of the end product of the refinement of adaptation—the serial response, and are accumulating much experimental data as to the conditions under which various types of serial response can be most effectively built up, the reason why useless part reactions should be eliminated and effective ones retained is still a matter of conjecture, and constitutes perhaps the most vexing problem in educational psychology. A recent book by Koffka, *The Growth of the Mind*, contains a good presentation of the controversy that has arisen over this point. This controversy, like that over instinct, illustrates the danger of an overreadiness to argue from what has been *demonstrated* to be true of animal behavior to what is *therefore assumed* to be true of human behavior. Lashley's rats, Thorndyke's cats, and Kohler's apes have loomed larger in the debate than experiments on human children and adults.

¹¹ Smith and Guthrie, *General Psychology*, pp. 128-29.

¹² Smith and Guthrie, *General Psychology*, III; Perrin and Kline, *Psychology*, and Watson, *Behaviorism*, chs. IX and XI, all contain good summaries of the material. For recent experiments the reader is referred to the bibliography of educational psychology in *The Psychological Bulletin*, July, 1927.

SUPERSTITIONS AND THEIR SOCIAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CORRELATIVES AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS

Mazie Earle Wagner

The purpose of the following investigation is to study the nature and distribution of superstition among college freshmen, not as an end in itself, but as a starting point for making further inquiry into the psychological and sociological factors entering into the holding of these irrational beliefs by the members of this undergraduate group.

The plan of this experiment briefly is:

I. To obtain the amount and nature of superstition (by blank adapted from Dresslar¹ and revised by the experimenter) among these freshmen.

II. To find relationships between amount of superstition and

- (a) Intelligence
- (b) Religious Sects
- (c) Sex
- (d) Age
- (e) Type of high school attended; rural *vs.* urban.
- (f) Race; native *vs.* foreign born; "old" *vs.* "new" immigration.
- (g) Emotional and social control
- (h) Religiosity—the acceptance of religious dogma
- (i) Suggestibility.

III. To offer a theory of superstition

Superstition of the Group as a Whole

The 186 freshmen subjects reported beliefs totaling 1423, all of which still influence their behavior, that is about 7.6 per person; the 119 men reported 757 superstitions or 6.5 per man; the 57 women, 666 or 11.6 per woman. Besides

¹ Dresslar, *Education and Superstition*.

the 1423 beliefs adhered to, the group reported 430 which had been dropped, or 2.3 per person; the man had dropped 323 or 2.7 per man, the women 107 or 1.8 per woman.

The most frequent superstition was tapping wood after boasting; 108 of the 186 freshmen still tap wood, while 33 had ceased the practice. Wishing following propitious signs; *i.e.*, falling star, first star of evening, at sight of load of hay, white horse, etc., ranked second; 101 of the 186 freshmen still wish with the advent of one or more of these signs; 21 had done so in the past; 61 did not allow posts or trees to come between themselves and friends; 23 had discarded the practice; 53 felt that the dropping of a knife, fork, spoon, or dishrag brought company; 11 had ceased to believe in the omen; 49 picked up pins for luck; 23 had done so, but had outgrown the habit. Next in order of popularity came, the luckiness or unluckiness of the numeral 13, ringing of ears indicates that one is spoken of, material in horoscope is reliable, four-leaf clover brings luck, black cat brings bad luck, dreams are prophetic, walking about chair brings change of luck at cards, death is foretold by dog howling, bird flying in window, or stopping of clock, Friday, 13th, is unlucky, palmists can foretell future, etc.

Plotting a histogram for superstition scores shows a decided skewing to the left, illustrative of the fact that there is the tendency for such a group as studied to be marching away from superstition, the laggards who have not caught up with the group in this elimination of superstition, trailing after the main advanced guard at various distances.

Intelligence Quotient and Superstition

A correlation was run for the intelligence percentile ratings, as determined by the University of Buffalo entrance examination (the 1926 American Council Test), and superstition; a correlation ratio of $-.12$ being obtained. Without going into any defense of the intelligence examination as given, we might at least say that there does not seem to be any correlation between the ability to pass intelligence exam-

inations and the quality, superstitiousness. Nor is the opposite particularly found.

When a correlation was obtained between the amount of superstition dropped and percentile score on the intelligence tests, a positive ratio of .058 was obtained, practically a chance scattering.

Religious Sects and Superstition

Of the three main groups—Catholic, Protestant, and Jewish—the Jewish, on the whole, displayed the least superstition, and the Catholics slightly the most. The numbers of each are not large enough, however, to make the findings oversignificant.

Superstition and Sex

The average number of superstitions for the women is considerably higher than for the men (as above); but what is more interesting and indicative is the fact that the men have dropped a greater proportion of their superstitions—almost half, whereas the women have dropped only about one sixth of theirs. This is very likely due to the wider experience of the men, the fact that they have greater and more contacts with facts and situations. There may also be a second factor; *i.e.*, that the taunt of superstitiousness when applied to men is perhaps felt to be a sharper one than when applied to women. Women are thought to be more superstitious, in other words it is a "womanly" or "feminine" trait, and very unsatisfactory when applied to men.

The following table considers the medians of the entire group—superstition scores related to sex:

	No	1st Quartile	Median	3d Quartile
Men	119	10.5	22	38.5
Women	67	19.0	34	56.0
Total	186	13.0	26	44.0

The material collected, as above, in no way contradicts the popular concept that women are relatively more superstitious than men.² It would seem that these irrational fictions (group

² Helen B. Thompson, *Psychological Norms in Men and Women*, p. 182

myths, magic, or folk lore) are a greater part of women's culture; magic, the early science produced by women, being handed down from mother to daughter through the ages. Men, being less housed and having greater contact with reality, lose this primitive science quicker, taking on to themselves the science of the day in its stead. It would be expected that when irrational beliefs, or any system of beliefs, are part of a culture, the greater part of such a culture they may be, the greater amount will be absorbed by the individuals' producing and transmitting such a culture. As stated above, women's culture contains more superstition than does that of men. Also, the more suggestible the individuals of which a group may be, the larger portion of the current unverified beliefs will be absorbed by them. However, from the two suggestibility tests given the group there is no indication that the women are more suggestible than are the men, popular belief to the contrary.

Age with Superstition

When correlating age with superstition scores, a ratio of $-.19+$ was obtained; that is, the younger the individual, the more superstitious he appears to be, the older the less. There is also a slight tendency for the older individuals to have dropped more of their superstitions than the younger ones. Age correlated with the amount of superstition dropped gave a ratio of .12. Said otherwise, the greater fund of experience the individual has to draw upon, the less suggestible will he or she be to irrational concepts.

High School Attended and Superstition

An attempt was made to find whether those freshmen coming from small and small-town high schools were more greatly burdened with superstition than those coming from the large and large-city high schools. There is an idea abroad that it is in the rural communities and among immigrants that superstition grows to its most luxurious proportions. From examination of tables constructed very little

can be concluded, except that superstition is *not* confined to either large or small high schools, but pretty well distributed over all.

Race and Superstition

We have already noted that the Jewish freshmen were less superstitious than any of the other religious groups. This group is apt to be foreign born, the children of foreign born, or the grandchildren of foreign-born people. The majority will, very likely, be found in the so-called "new immigrant" group.

Of the entire group of 186 individuals, but eleven were foreign born. These were unusually lacking in superstition, due perhaps to wide experience. There were 55 of foreign-born parentage. Inspection of the table constructed for the purpose shows that the children of foreign born are no more superstitious than those of American-born parentage; nor do we find that children of "old" immigrant groups are either more or less superstitious than those of the "new" immigrant group, although the number of individuals is so small that the findings are but indicative.

Emotional and Social Control Related to Superstition

There seems to be no relation between confidence in self, amount of grit, and mixing ability, as estimated subjectively, and the scorings in superstition. The correlation ratio of .248 between control of temper and superstition, $-.17$ between initiative and superstition, and of $-.19$ between worrying and superstition seems to indicate a slight tendency for these several variables to run parallel to superstition. That is, those who have best and most control of their tempers, who worry least and have least initiative, tend to be more superstitious. The negative correlations between worrying and superstition and between initiative and superstition are so low as to be barely indicative. Very little can be concluded from them. The .248 correlation ratio between control of temper and superstition is, however, at least an indication; and may be variously interpreted. Control of temper

is undoubtedly an introvert characteristic; superstition may also be. Or the correlation may be interpreted to indicate the ease with which an individual accepts current ideas, concepts, beliefs; suggestibility; that is, indicating that the person who accepts current folk myths at the same time tends to accept the adage, "That to control oneself is better than to control a city."

Superstition and Religiosity

The limits of space prevent giving most of the material collected; but it might be interesting to note that the more suggestible individuals tend to take agnostic and atheistic beliefs more readily than those in whom nonsuggestibility, a stand-on-your-own-feet kind of philosophy has been developed.⁴ The superstitious tend to be the atypicals with regard to religious dogma; that is, they either accept it blindly or swing to the opposite side and quite as blindly follow evolution, or other biological concepts presented by individuals of prestige, the teachers.⁵

Opinions and Convictions on Social Questions

When scattergrams were constructed for superstition and reactions to statements of opinion on social questions, there was again noted a tendency for the more superstitious to accept more blindly and unquestioningly the common current folkways.

From this material, however, one cannot be sure that it is suggestibility that is the common cause; it might just as readily be, and probably to a certain extent is, caused by an environment that contains both a large element of superstition and much dogmatic assertion as to the authority of religion and social custom (an unenlightened, suggestible community).

Suggestibility and Superstition

Upon refining the data, as above, there seemed to be many indications pointing to the conclusion that the amount of

⁴ A Correlation ratio of $-.42$ was obtained between religious conservatism and suggestibility.

⁵ No criticism of the theories of biology, of religious concepts, or of agnosticism or atheism is here intended

superstition held in some way depended upon the suggestibility of the individual. It was for this reason that an attempt was made to formulate and give suggestibility tests to as many of the group given the superstition questionnaire as could be "rounded up."

The "ausage" test, using the picture, the "Hindoos," was given the Introductory Science Class, 92 of whom had filled in the superstition questionnaire. It was given as a memory test, the picture being shown three minutes and then 37 questions asked, 16 of which were so constructed as to provoke suggestible replies.

Wishing a better rounded picture of the suggestibility of the group under consideration, an attempt was made to devise another group suggestibility test:

Professor B. of the chemistry department interrupted an Introductory Science lecture about twenty minutes after the class had been under way, announcing that an amount of "hypo-trellium-sulphate," a gas that the chemistry department "had been experimenting with extensively at the time" had got through the air vents into the lecture hall occupied by this class. He stated that the effects of the gas were not definitely known; some of the chemistry department faculty had suffered considerable distress, others like himself had not been noticeably affected by the gas. Inasmuch as the class had accidentally inhaled the gas, would they not as a service to science, indicate any subjective reactions together with the number of their seat so that the relative diffusion of the gas might be noted. (Needless to say, for purposes of keeping attendance, the seat number of each student was known.) The class punctuated his statements with gales of laughter. He turned to the board, saying "These are some of the effects noted upon members of the chemistry department," and wrote nausea, headache, dizziness, itching of eyes, itching of skin, burning of mucous membrane of nose and throat, dry tongue, rapid respiration, exhilaration, other vaguer effects. He left the hall saying that Professor H., who had

been working with him on this gas the previous hour, had been so disturbed that he had to be taken home. Shortly after the resumption of the class topic, one girl arose and in a slow and unsteady gait left the lecture room.

Of the 122 (90 of whom had filled in superstition questionnaires) who turned in slips, 57 admitted ill effects: 6 nausea, 26 headache, 12 dizziness, 13 itching eyes, 6 eyes hurt, 4 itching skin, etc. This test of and by itself is not very reliable, inasmuch as there was considerable "cluster suggestion"; i.e., one individual said "no ill effects" and the immediate suggestible individuals were suggestible to him as well as to Professor B.

It is highly regrettable that there are no very reliable suggestibility tests for groups, and that the experimenter did not have time to give individual suggestibility tests.

The suggestibility "aussage" test when correlated with superstition scores gave a correlation ratio of .253 (92 individuals responded to both the "aussage" test and the superstition questionnaire). When the scores on the "gas" test was considered along with the "aussage" test, the ratio jumped to .285 (90 individuals responded to both suggestibility tests and the superstition questionnaire). That is, with an addition of a slight amount of material on suggestibility, a higher correlation was obtained. One wishes that a complete picture of individual suggestibility might have been obtained.

Multiple Correlations

Finally, multiple correlations were calculated to see whether any of the ratios could be raised by combining factors. Following are some of the more significant results:

Total suggestibility and superstition (as above) . .	.285
(religious conservatism constant)31
(age constant)258
(intelligence constant)263
(age and intelligence constant)23
Superstition and age (as above)	-.19
(intelligence constant)	-.21
(suggestibility constant)	-.14

Superstition and intelligence (as above)	-.12
(age constant)	-.15
(suggestibility constant)	-.04

These need no discussion. It is, however, interesting to note that intelligence, age, and suggestibility all seem to be closely constellated. Keeping any one constant lowers the correlation ratio of either of the others with superstition; this being most noticeable when suggestibility is kept constant.

When religious conservatism is kept constant, the ratio between suggestion and superstition climbs to .31. When the nonsuggestible were omitted, the ratio climbed to .42. This seems to indicate that religious radicalism is a product of, or at least somehow correlated with suggestibility. This would encourage the experimenter to suggest that religious radicalism be one of the individual tests of suggestibility along with a short superstition questionnaire.

The fact that when suggestibility is kept constant, the ratio found between superstition and intelligence sinks to -.04 seems also of interest.

Conclusion

From the above correlations, means and medians, we must conclude that superstition is not correlated with intelligence. It does not depend for its source upon either rural or city community life, nor is it a product of any or several religious beliefs, nor yet the particular possession of any one or several immigrant groups. We do not find that it is particularly harbored by youth, although youth is slightly more susceptible to it. Both sexes are superstitious, women being somewhat more so than men. It is not harbored by either the atypically radical nor the atypically conservative, nor are those who cluster about the median in the matter of conservatism or radicalism particularly its hosts.

However, from the data on religiosity, from the data on the reaction to religious dogma, from the fact that youth is slightly more superstitious than age, and finally from the relationships found between suggestibility reactions and super-

stition (which even though so low as to be unpredictable, still because of the limited number of suggestibility tests, are at least indicative); from this collection of material, it seems reasonable to conclude that superstition feeds upon and grows to its most luxuriant proportions among the habitually suggestible.

Dresslar writes as follows concerning the training for elimination of superstition: "An understanding of the unknown can come only through an understanding of scientific law. Thus, training in biology, chemistry, physics, and other such sciences will do more to banish necromancy than will any studious reaching after the three R's. . . . Since the mothers are the important agents in passing these along to the children, it would seem necessary to give female education more emphasis in the educational system, especially providing in natural sciences for the young women." He deplors that so much myth and folk lore is provided for the gullible perusal of young children. He says the imagination may be nourished otherwise than on a diet of falsity and fabrications, which not only teach incorrect fact, but incorrect theory as well. His reasoning seems very logical and in line with the above.

It would seem that superstition is the result of a suggestible individual's being exposed to an environment containing much dogma of a superstitious character. The suggestible person has uncritically, gullibly swallowed great masses of what in the way of ideas and propositions his meager environment has had to offer his prodigious appetite. If, therefore, such a person is able to carry a heavy load of ideas and propositions of a superstitious character, were this burden removed and the suggestion that the individual must be critical successfully entered, an equally heavy load of a more critical and scientific nature might be borne. In other words, one might expect that the size of the load of ideas, etc., that any person carries, is an indicator of the amount he is able to carry; that a fairly heavy load indicates that the individual

reacts forcefully enough to propositions to make them stick to his memory; then would not your superstitious person be the most teachable?

To somewhat answer this query, a study was made of the acquisition quotient of those having the highest scores in superstition. The acquisition quotient or A.Q. is the work accomplished divided by the intelligence quotient or I.Q. The averages of each individual's grades were listed, and percentiles calculated. These percentiles were divided by the intelligence quotient percentile. Upon investigation of the A.Q.'s of the eleven most superstitious boys, it was found that eight of the eleven had very high A.Q.'s, five of them exceptionally so, and three well above par; the remaining three of the eleven were about average. This would tend to substantiate the theory that superstition is an indication of plasticity, receptivity, suggestibility.

If, then, these highly superstitious individuals were searched out, if the suggestion was entered that they *must* be critical, thus training them to build up a defense against their suggestibility, if they were further advised to apply themselves to some of the physical sciences in order to out-root the fundamental assumption of superstition, if perhaps also debating and argumentation were advised, and information generally put to them in an emphatic way, one might expect these suggestible-superstitious individuals to make the very best students. This is our hypothesis, the testing of which by further data would be most interesting.

"PRIMITIVE" EDUCATION

Nathan Miller

The anthropological and culture-history approach to the study of society has perhaps yielded more concrete results than the philosophical, psychological, or statistical methods. This is not to slur or depreciate the value of pursuing these other avenues of attack upon social problems. The history of sociology portrays unmistakably, however, that too many of our investigators have plunged into the maelstrom of society and have grappled with giants or chased elusive phantoms, clutching here at a hint and there at an outcropping which have then appeared large in their own eyes as an explanation or foundation stone of society. On the other hand, the names of such men as Tylor, Lippert, Sir Henry Maine, Frazer, Sumner, Ward loom large in the history of social science and they have all largely built their contributions upon the study of primitive society. Doubtless, the further elaboration, unification and tightening up, so to speak, of sociology waits upon the contributions of psychology and biology, but there is already at hand an enormous wealth of material in the literature of ethnology and anthropology that lies practically untapped, a mine of objective facts that needs little theorizing or clutching at each new straw of doctrine blown our way by the other sciences.

The criticism has been advanced that the study of primitive folk life is myopic, that contemporary ways, beliefs, and institutions cannot be interpreted in the light of the vagaries of primitive man's society. The end result cannot, it is claimed, be attacked with the data of the crude beginnings of things. For instance, the enormous to-do on the subject of companionate marriage receives no check or enlightened control, it is asserted, from the study of the sex relations of the Andaman Islanders. To this we demur entirely. The complex of societal arrangements under the régime of which

we live today is not far removed from that of primitive man. The relation of parent to child, of man to woman, of ruler to ruled, if investigated without benefit of hunches or bits of homespun theories, will reveal unmistakably close allegiance to the sociology of primitive life. We are still very "primitive" in our social habits and institutions. The companionate marriage, stripped of its modern terminology, has evident parallels and much clearer bases in the folk life of many primitive tribes.

To repeat, we are woefully "primitive" in government, religious institutions, sex relations, and the like. On the scale of man's life on the earth our vaunted modernism pales into insignificance. Ninety-nine one-hundredths of man's life, certainly, has been passed in the so-called "primitive" stages. It is only in the economic field—in tools, processes, and organization—that advance has been extremely rapid, but even here the latest researches reveal the debt of the machine technology, to the tools of primitive man.

This paper, therefore, is frankly restricted to an investigation and interpretation of primitive education, denoting thereby not merely the practices and institutions of primitive life but also alluding to the basis of our modern pedagogy as well, for the immense verbiage spilled on the subject today does not hide its crude fundamental origins.

This topic has its importance, as in the child there is created the repository, the carrier, and the treasure of culture. The social heritage, that is the continuity of the folk life and feeling for social cohesion is kept alive by the transference to the child of the folkways, tools, processes, practices, and institutionalized beliefs of his forbears. The material furnished by ethnography is unmistakably clear on this point, that the bulk of the education of the primitive child is unpremeditated and casual. Set down in a particular culture-complex, the definite component parts of culture adhere to the child as a magnet draws to its steel filings or as seaweed attaches itself to a piece of wreckage. Upon this background

and in the degree that the folkways and *mores* are slowly elaborated, the reflexes or social habits of the child are definitely and overtly conditioned by purposive measures undertaken by the folk.

Another caution in methodology appears at this point. Sociologists are apt to speak of social forces as mystical, elusive concepts swirling about in the atmosphere, and drenching or impinging upon the individual. Perhaps this tendency is due to the fact that our feet are not firmly planted upon the factual original material of social life which is afforded largely by ethnography and culture history. In the past, before the use of written language and the microscopic and picturesque biography of today, events lay encased in a gloom, to be sure. With this dearth of connective detail we are apt to clothe our ignorance with an elaborate terminology or with the creation of the concept of forces. The basic reality in social life it seems, however, is the individual and his life and, if sociology is to derive "laws" or generalizations, it will not be by selecting diffuse or elusive concepts but by studying the typical relationships between individuals, as between parent and child, man and woman, medicine man and communicant, etc. From this, perhaps, more solid stones may be extracted with which to build a social science.

Applying this to our present topic it appears most valuable to scrutinize the use or worth of children to their parents or elders as the basic relationship in which the children are set. The education of the child and his function in folk life emerges or flows out of his relationship to his mother and later to his father, as the starting point. As a matter of fact, the germ of all social relationships is based on that between mother and child as model. This is an undeniable organic tie. With the gradual emergence of the male predominance in culture history, the desire for children becomes a passion that is all consuming. Children are wanted for selfish purposes.

The Kafir father in South Africa, for example, is

enormously elated upon the birth of a child. He lifts the baby in the air above his head and kisses it on the thighs, calling out "My cattle," for that is what it represented in his imagination. The mother in the Marshall Islands declares naively enough: "Children are good, because my eldest is already earning money and brings it to me every month. As soon as all the children are grown, then I will become a rich woman." Where the economic tools are crude, children are pressing needs to keep the body and soul of the parent together, but ordinarily children serve to enhance the prestige, material comfort, in short, create an invidious distinction in the social life for the parent.

Beside, the child serves to give ease and solace to the parents' spirit after death. The ghost of one who has left no children is in a piteous plight. Among the Yoruba in West Africa, for example, the epithet, *Isokun*, "a mourner" is applied to a female child; a male, on the other hand is called *Irrale*, "a digger," that is, of a grave. "A father might thus say that he had begotten two mourners and a digger, meaning two daughters and a son." To sum up with a striking expression that conveys the cynical selfishness of the attitude toward the child, we may quote the Rhodesian natives on this subject. They declare: "The *mivana*, or child as he is in regard to his elders, is likened to a bag which can be taken by you to carry things, out of which you can help yourself, and it can say nothing; also to a *lumano*, a pair of pincers, for the elder uses them to convey things to himself; also to a soft skin which can be turned this way and that—"

The bulk of the child's education in the societies of simpler culture is casual, unpremediated, and undirected. The greater part of folk usages is imbibed naturally and spontaneously, without benefit of direction or training. The tools, weapons, and technique of food getting for self-maintenance are as yet simple enough for the child to learn their worth unaided. The natural acquisitive and appetitive energies of the child

are soon attached to this part of the social heritage and by means of imitation and mimicry he is early deploying about like a grown-up. This aspect of the socialization of the child can be no more easily apprehended than the growth of a plant. In both instances, elements of the environment are transmuted imperceptibly into the individual's life.

Informative glimpses of this process may, however, be caught. The extent to which the child's mimicry proceeds is amazing. Among the natives of Sarawak, children have been noted playing about in the midst of a collection of smoked heads. When asked if the sight of them inspired fear, the invariable answer was "No"! "On the contrary, they would be glad to see more of these specters hanging up above their heads." Mingling in tribal and family councils, the children become prematurely familiar with public affairs and tribal laws. The whole body of comparatively esoteric knowledge is gained. In the Gilbert Islands, to choose one instance, the dances and songs are picked up. A little fellow will be found essaying a step by standing behind a participant in a dance and ape his movements. "They share the wailing over the dead and listen to the incantations for the sick and the magic songs that hush the winds and stay the fury of the tempests. They learn to reverence their totems, to beat their lips and hoot when the new moon first appears and not to point to a rainbow lest one of their arms should be cut off while they sleep."

Indiscriminately, all that meets the eye and captures the unrestrained senses is imitated. Among the Omaha Indians, an observer once came across a miniature clay coffin with a bit of glass set in, beneath which was a clay baby. Some child had seen the funeral of a white person and had devised a new plaything. This unrestricted realistic flair of the child may be further exemplified by the dolls of the Bororo Indians of Brazil. These "are made of palm leaf folded together a few times with detailed characteristics of the sexes. One even has an imitation of the monkey-tooth breast ornament,

made of small pieces of light wood and cotton. Sometimes they have a belt of black cloth to signify the menstruation period. In one example, a covering of down is meant to signify that the doll has just been born"!

A host of illustrations are at hand to emphasize the all-embracing sway of the imitative faculties in the socialization of the primitive child. Sex relations, family life, the language, the cult, folk expressions of vanity are all caught within this method. The sophistication wrought in modern youth by the cinema pales into insignificance before this play acting of the child of the simpler cultures. The child's hands, as compared with the modern child, are not yet occupied in holding books, or spelling out words, his eyes see more because little is hidden, he hears more because there is less whispering and pussyfooting on the part of the elders and above all the creative appetitive interests are not yet deadened or intimidated by the restrictive "don'ts" of later cultures. There is an immediacy and trustworthiness about this form of voluntary education which we are seeking to recapture in modern educational methods as a relief from our own didactically harassed souls.

The emergence of a régime of physical and moral training of the child to accompany the simple unreflective mimicry betokens a more developed culture. Economic life becomes quickened and elaborated with the development of the arts of life, as the domestication of animals and of plants. Upon this groundwork parental relations, particularly that of the father to his child becomes clarified as a basic form of property ownership. This serves to jostle the child into an important position in the family as material aid, and as heir. The child can not longer idle into maturity, as the ways of life become foreign to his native interests. He must be whipped into shape because the animal proclivities developed in man through the long course of evolution have but only recently encountered this peculiar product of man's history—that is, culture institutions

The training meted out to the child is hardly systematic or regularized. It is administered in doses, often with ceremonial accompaniment. The training is partly vocational in character and partly a moral chastening of the child's spirit. The lack of system is compensated for by the savage rigor of the method.

To choose representative cases: On the Congo, the father gives the child a toy paddle and teaches him to back-water, to steer, and to move in unison with others. "Nor was this all, for there were over fifty words and phrases he had to learn dealing with canoeing." Among the Papuans, a noted traveler observed a young girl busy at gymnastic exercises. This continued although the child was obviously tired. Upon inquiry, it was learned that the girl was undergoing physical exercise for her coming marital duties. In Borneo, an old woman is tied to a tree and the children are forced to stick spears into her in order to inure them to the sight of blood and in order to make "men" of them. Among the Stseelis of British Columbia, the boys were forced to bathe in the river every night and morning throughout the year. They would first whip their naked bodies with small branches which were placed in the flames of the house fire for a few minutes. Long rods were forced down their throats. To teach the girls industrious habits, they were employed in picking needles from a fir branch; in order that they might drink but little, they were supplied with a shell of water which had a hole pierced through it for the purpose of letting the water leak through. The Warran in Guiana even have a music teacher who teaches the young to play a sort of oboe. Among the Kafirs of South Africa, girls are also inured to bear fatigue. Under the guidance of an old hag, clad only in a dress made of ropes and bits of reed, the girls carry large pots of water. They often have scars from bits of burning charcoal having been applied to the forearm to test their power of bearing pain. If an Aleutian infant in Alaska cried, even in winter,

he was carried to the seashore and held naked in the water until he became quiet.

This type of training is thus a grim, stern affair. The individuals who cannot stand up under this vigorous treatment are selected out—they are consigned to a lifelong position of servitude and shame, or even die under the strain. Those who survive fit into the social pattern without discomfort or dissent.

As soon as group consciousness is aroused, the training of the child becomes more systematic and ordered. This is to be observed among those folk who come into contact with folk of other cultures, such contacts serving to accentuate the feeling for social cohesion in the elders of the tribe. Or, in the case of migration from the ancestral seat, it becomes necessary to construct methods of preserving in the individual the worth and meaning of the legendary lore. The child cannot voluntarily, in such instances, appreciate the *mores* because the environment which shaped them has vanished, and a new set of circumstances has intervened to render these old ways meaningless to him. Or, in a declining population, the elders tend to clutch antiquity more closely to them and to their children. Otherwise it would all be lost forever if it were not to remain in the behavior and memory of the offspring.

Short of these unusual motives there also arises in culture history other forces which tend to produce definite educational *mores* and institutions. The primitive looks upon organic life not as a subtle, gradual unfolding or evolution but as a series of climactic, episodic events. Each physical change is celebrated as a signal, isolated, explosive change. And the most thoroughgoing of these, is, of course, the onset of puberty. At this period the whole organism is metamorphosed. To the primitive this occasion was momentous in its potentialities, partly because of his ignorance of the nature of the change and partly because of the social implications involved. It was clear that sexual maturity meant the possibility of creating a nexus of new social relationships. There-

fore it became necessary at puberty to carefully and systematically instruct the youths in those *mores* of the folk which were less tangible and which involved the relationships of the sexes and the connections thereof with property, the cult, etc.

Therefore, social maturity was centered about physical maturity, but soon the former became separated from the latter and it is not unusual to learn of children in arms and aged sires undergoing the initiation ceremonies simultaneously. At the initiation ceremonies, then, an elaborate pedagogical system was erected to inculcate the fundamental *mores*. The child is browbeaten, drugged, intoxicated, intimidated, and harassed until his spirit is rendered supine, and completely receptive to the "moral laws" of his tribe. The novices are literally supposed to decay and are later reborn as new individuals with new life and with all the marks of acquiescent conformity to the folk life. Thus, with cruel hammer blows social continuity is preserved by inculcating those qualities requisite for social allegiance.

Social machinery of such efficacy has often been seized upon and employed by ambitious, selfish groups. So, the initiation has been adopted by chiefs to rule the children of his subjects, by the men to rule the women, etc.

The actual instruction meted out at these turbulent performances, consists of a hodgepodge of moral instructions, hygienic precautions, and training in the daily occupations of life. The basic consideration may be gleaned from this specimen of the Papuan code which is related to the boys, thus: "It is wrong to steal. It is wrong to commit adultery, for if you do, you will die quickly. It is wrong to beat your wife, if you do, other people will say you are like a dog. It is wrong to steal food from gardens. It is good to make big gardens, in order that your wife may be faithful to you. When you take a wife, live with the single men until your gardens have plenty of food; until they are ready, let your wife live with your father and mother. If you have connection with your wife and she becomes pregnant before your

gardens are ready, you will incur the contempt of the village." The materialistic basis of morality was never more naïvely interpreted than by this Papuan. And the ordeals, privations, and harrowing experiences during the term of the ceremonies enforce the lessons with a rigor and unalterable lifelong decision.

After this course is over the primitive sinks into an intellectual stupor. Missionaries, travelers, and ethnographers have almost uniformly marveled at the precocity of the native child with his unbounded eager versatility. But after the initiation, the youth is so utterly clamped into place that this quality vanishes.

It is a breath-taking leap into our modern educational methods from this study of primitive education. Nevertheless, it takes but a cursory examination to reveal the fact that the spirit underlying the pedagogy of historical times has varied but little from that of the Bushman or the Papuan. To be sure, it is more purposeful but it does not diminish in its cynical selfishness. As Bertrand Russell has observed, the tale is one of sacrificing the child's individuality and promise to institutions, beliefs, and catchwords, such as the "state," the "church," the "family," all basically verbiage to clothe the selfish prerogatives of the vested interests of the elders. As Trigant Burrow has also pointed out in a recent study, the growing child is still living in a world of almost pure convention, most of them conventions that are unbelievably crass and stupid, and its normality consists in the acceptance of a world which does not hang together in any intelligible or coherent way, but is capricious, absurd, and destructive. We may regard with horror the cruel instruments of primitive education, but we are still apt to cram down the throats of our children norms, ideas, and *mores* which have no other or better virtue than that they have been inherited as part of our social heritage.

TRAINING THE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

Nathaniel G. West

An outstanding problem in the field of public education is the training of the elementary-school principal. Recent developments have so changed his position, so increased his responsibilities, that one authority has written, "the problem is whether elementary principals are big enough to measure us to the responsibilities that have been thrust upon them."

The same author names three "main tendencies which have been working to create the present conception of the elementary principalship:

1. The building of large schools which accommodate one thousand pupils or more is a rather recent development in the elementary-school field.

2. There has come during the past few years a development of educational knowledge and procedure so that the adaptation of the school to the pupil is a more detailed and complex task than it was a few years ago.

3. There is the tendency in large school systems to decentralize the administration of the entire school system."

Both the principal in service and the prospective principal need training in the "peculiar technique" of this type of principalship.

Furthermore, there has been a definite growth toward the social viewpoint in education. Educators are not only clarifying their thinking about the nature of democracy, but are finding ways of practising it. We hear much about pupil participation, creative school control, and cooperative supervision. "The school seems to run itself," says Rabenort.

The principal of a modern elementary school must certainly understand fully the social service which the school

¹ Roscoe L. West "The Work of the Elementary School Principal," Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals," N E A , V. 1, October, 1925

should render both to the individual child and to the community. He needs to be helped to an appreciation of the peculiar functions of the special agents provided both by the school organization and the other assisting agencies. He needs to become informed of the best techniques in utilizing all such services. With such a viewpoint he can scarcely fail to develop within his school a fine spirit of social service and coöperation.

A course of training for the elementary principalship must be functional. The test is, does the course help the principal in meeting the technical demands of his present position and does it broaden his horizon so that he sees many possibilities which may not be immediately realizable but are ultimate goals.

For several summers the School of Education of New York University has offered a four-point course in "The Elementary-School Principalship." This year for the first time it is being offered during the college year. The work deals with the technique peculiar to the elementary principalship. It follows three main lines:

In the first place, students work on the solution of problems which they have encountered in the principalship or which they, as teachers or vice principals, have observed their principals meet. Opportunity is given to become familiar with current best practices which will aid in their solution. Furthermore, many other representative problems are discussed and their significance evaluated, many such problems having been originally proposed by members of an elementary principals' professional association in a large city. This procedure is of service to the students in the solution of their respective problems.

Paralleling this problem solving is the study of literature fundamental to the technique of the modern principalship.

The third procedure grows out of the problem of varied school situations in which the students are working. Some are in very small schools; others in large ones. Therefore,

consideration is being given to problems in one particular school. In order that all may be "talking the same language," each student is furnished a loose-leaf book containing rather complete data concerning this practical school situation which happens to present an unusual number of problems which are representative. The material includes: photostatic diagram of organization, blueprints of the building with dimensions of all rooms, complete file of schedules, samples of all record blanks, and copies of written standard practices. Such concrete and coöperative study of representative techniques will enable each student to carry back to his own situation some material of value. It will also enable the group to suggest better techniques than are represented in some of the procedures presented.

The forthcoming Year Book of the Department of Elementary School Principals, N.E.A.—"Standards and Training for the Elementary School Principalship"—will be of great value in stimulating the training of principals. Its publication is awaited with interest.

INQUIRY

Attention has been called to the sources of social waste in classroom procedure.¹ More significant and wholesale loss obtains through the successive changes of administrative school officers. The average term of office of a superintendent of schools in the United States is estimated to be less than two years. *What suggestions has educational sociology to offer which might check this wholesale social loss through necessitated change of policy?*

No more pertinent question could be asked than the one submitted. If our answer is sufficiently clear and concise, it will render valuable suggestions to school superintendents and principals everywhere.

The writer, having been a principal and a superintendent, is conscious of the problems involved; and is submitting sociological suggestions based upon the definite assumption that the chief cause for the deplorably brief tenure lies with the administrator himself. In making this assumption he is not unaware of possible protests which administrators may care to submit.

In the light of educational sociology, school administrators do many things they should not do; and do not do many things that they should do. These errors and omissions are the primary causes of personal loss, annoyance, and temporary failures, as well as the most probable cause for social loss to education.

A teacher is and should be adversely criticized, when he does not take into consideration individual needs and backgrounds as bases for classroom procedure. The administrator makes a comparable error when he does not study home and community backgrounds as bases for administrative procedure. These must be understood before adequate social

¹ See *Journal of Educational Sociology*, I, 6, 350-51.

adjustments can be made. The *mores* and community experiences should be given opportunity to function and be allowed expression. It should be determined what the community wants. This being known, education can be adjusted within that community to create new and more suitable demands.

A community in itself is never qualified to determine or construct educational policies; but it is able to judge those policies after they become operative. Judgment is favorable to educational policies in accordance with the education of the community to those policies. The administrator too often represents his own policies rather than those of the community. To the extent that they are at variance dissatisfaction and opposition develop.

Most people today have extreme faith in democracy as an ideal, but we have not given it the opportunity to function. Principals and superintendents often fail at this point. Every individual must contribute to the formulation of an educational program if that program is to be carried out successfully. Teachers are nearer to the community and comprise a larger part of it than does the administrator. They are more able, therefore, to modify the ideals, attitudes, and demands of the community than is the administrator. Some real community education can be rationally provided by them through active participation; yet often they are not allowed to exercise that ability. Very often the superintendent makes the dangerous blunder in deciding upon policies without first causing the community, of which teachers are a part, to be conscious of the need.

More recently there has been an effort to sell the schools to the community through publicity. The superintendent may be promoting publicity himself or a publicity specialist may be employed by the board of education. In the latter case, the publicity manager may be following either of two policies: (1) to attempt to promote the policies of the superintendent through publicity, or (2) to attempt to educate the community and make the people conscious of more modern needs.

The former policy is dangerous and not socially effective. It is wiser to be guided by the reactions of the community.

The problem of education is not confined to the education of the children. It involves taking the community along. A superintendent thinking of the latest features in American education for his schools is not thinking in terms of his community; and he will cause himself much anxiety and provide a rocky road if he attempts to impose them upon his community before providing for its adaptation. Our legislatures have long followed such a plan unsuccessfully. Today every state has a law making compulsory the teaching of the effects of alcoholic drinks, narcotics, and tobacco. But the law in itself has seemingly done little to educate the respective communities within the states. Certain states like New Jersey have passed a law requiring formal instruction in morals and manners; but its effect upon the behavior of citizens, even when the provisions of the law are obeyed, has apparently been negligible. State movements of this kind are usually promoted by some individual through an organization or society. It is one thing to pass a law or determine a policy; but quite another to effect behavior changes among children and adults of the community. At the recent meeting of the National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology, Professor Snedden suggested that the function of teachers is essentially the teaching of subject matter; and that our policy makers will tell them what to do and they must do it. But one familiar with administering a system of schools knows very well the fallacy involved in attempting to have teachers carry out a policy not their own. Occasionally a morally over-zealous administrator undertakes, perhaps single handed, to correct certain practices of his board of education or community. He thus creates personal opposition and gradually he ceases to function as a leader in educational progress. However well equipped the administrator may be personally, it is socially unwise to become emotional about petty customs and practices certain to be

more deeply rooted than one would suspect from surface observations.

Problems of educational leadership must not be overlooked. Thus far in our discussion we have thought of the superintendent or principal as a progressive leader. But there are superintendents who are falling behind their communities. If a so-called leader does not formulate an adequate educational program, some other agency will do it for him. Our hope in education is in the "sweating out" of traditions. Educators often need more education. It is noted that in health education and accident prevention the community is most progressive; that superintendents are slower than their communities; and that normal and training schools are slowest of all in helping to promote an educational program that will cause individuals to keep well and avoid accidents under new and increasingly complex living conditions.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

EDITORIAL NOTE: It is designed to make this department a clearing house (1) for information about current research projects of interest to educational sociology and (2) for ideas with reference to research methods and techniques in this field. Readers are urged to report projects and suggestions as to methods of research. This department desires to encourage and stimulate cooperation in research.

NEW THREE-YEAR RESEARCH PROJECT IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY AT NEW YORK UNIVERSITY

New York University is the recipient of a gift of \$36,000 for the purpose of carrying on a three-year study of the effect of the new Jefferson Park Boys' Club in the Upper East Side of Manhattan upon the boys and the community.

A portion of the sum will be used for the establishment of eight \$1,000 fellowships. Appointments will be made for one year only, with the anticipation that candidates whose work has been satisfactory will be reappointed at the end of that period. In addition, the School of Education is establishing eight tuition scholarships. Both the fellows and scholars will participate in the boys' club study, working out their theses for degrees in this field. Both seniors and graduate students may apply for these appointments. Requests for application blanks should be mailed immediately to Professor Frederic M. Thrasher, Director Boys' Club Study, New York University, School of Education, Washington Square East, New York City.

The study will be unique in that it will attempt to study all factors in the community which influence boy life, not in isolation but as parts of a total situation within which the boys in the Boys' Club will be investigated. All the various techniques of social science will be employed in pursuing the investigation.

A number of social agencies will cooperate in the study, including the New York State Crime Commission, the Chil-

dren's Village, the Charity Organization Society, the Boy Scouts of America, the Boys' Club Federation, etc. An advisory council of experts in this field will be available for consultation on various phases of the project. A supervisor of field work will be employed to coördinate the work of a large number of students in the various classes in social science who will coöperate in the project.

RESEARCH PROJECTS BEING CARRIED ON UNDER THE
DIRECTION OF THE WELFARE COUNCIL OF
NEW YORK CITY

Through grants from the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial and the Commonwealth Fund, the Welfare Council is carrying on through its Research Bureau a number of important studies in coöperation with—and, in most cases, at the request of—social agencies of the city. Among these are:

1. A study of the income and expenditure of social agencies during the last seventeen years
2. An inventory of the health service and health education resources of the City
3. A study of the activities of settlement houses
4. An inquiry into boys' work in Brooklyn, preliminary to a similar study of all New York City
5. A study of the social needs of the chronically ill in Greater New York City

It is believed that these studies should help the agencies attain the five objectives which they set up for themselves when the Welfare Council was organized:

1. Better team work among the social agencies and the elimination of overlapping and duplication
2. Better standards of social work
3. Better factual basis for community planning
4. Better public understanding of social work
5. Better support of social work

STUDIES OF RURAL GIRLS AND OF THEIR NEEDS¹

The above is the subject of several related studies now in process of completion under the editorship of the Southern Woman's Educational Alliance. They were undertaken about four years ago on a grant from one of the foundations and represent cooperation from the University of North Carolina in some parts of the work and from the University of Virginia in others. Various specialists from other institutions and from Government bureaus have assisted with certain parts of the studies.

Since the Southern Woman's Educational Alliance provides an informational and advisory service for girls and women in relation to education and occupations and bases this service on research, the purpose of the studies was to learn as intimately as possible the handicaps besetting typically underprivileged rural girls in securing an education, and in choosing and preparing for an occupation; also, as a result of this study, to provide itself and other agencies interested in rural girls with some light upon wise ways of helping them solve these difficulties. The method followed has been primarily that of case studies of individual girls and schools, selected as representing different angles on the problem, different types of environment, and different types and levels of education. In all a total of four hundred and thirty girls have been studied, representing homes in three states, and all grades of elementary and high schools. Ninety-one schools, variously located in two States and in five counties, have been studied. The more intensive case studies of the girls mentioned have included the application of various mental tests, physical examinations given by the medical department of one of the cooperating universities, and very detailed study of the girl's home, her interests, recreational and otherwise; economic status, educational history, progress, aspirations; her difficulties, opportunities, etc.

¹ Edited by O. Latham Hatcher, Southern Woman's Educational Alliance, Richmond, Va.

Out of these basic factors of information have developed the following studies, or divisions of the general study:

I. Background studies of conditions handicapping girls in rural elementary schools

II. Studies of two mountain schools—an elementary school and a high school, and case studies of all girls attending them

III. Studies of fifty rural high-school girls selected on the basis of mental ability

IV. Rural girls in the city for work

V. Experimentation in interesting four rural schools in guidance programs. In addition to these studies prospectuses will be presented of two others, for which a considerable amount of material is in hand.

(a) Actual and possible rural occupations for girls and women

(b) A problem book for rural girls and their helpers

THE SYRACUSE REACTION STUDY²

The Syracuse Reaction Study, an anonymous questionnaire filled out by 4,248 Syracuse students in the spring of 1926, was an attempt to measure student attitudes on all phases of the campus and curricular situations. Two main problems are involved in this investigation: (1) the personnel and administrative implications of the distribution of student opinion in the various colleges of Syracuse University and (2) the correlations among attitudes of individual students. Under the first head will be considered the range and acuteness of specific problems on the campus and under the second the fact that certain attitudes seem to go together in individual students.

²By Mr. D. Katz, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York

READERS' DISCUSSION

EDITORIAL NOTE: *This department is designed to be an open forum wherein free expression will be encouraged upon all questions in the field of THE JOURNAL.*

EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY AND THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL¹

Mr. William C. Reavis's article on "The Place of Educational Sociology in the Training of the Secondary-School Principal" (in the February, 1928, issue of THE JOURNAL) is of especial interest to one who is constantly dealing with the public and private secondary-school product. The secondary-school principal of today is supposed to be abreast of the times in educational theory and practice. It is too sweeping an indictment to lay secondary-school failures at the principal's door, but it is obvious that many principals are yet to receive their "supplementary training," especially in educational sociology, or else they have made little progress in applying the principles learned.

Mr. Reavis says "The principal must know the pupils and parents if he would administer the education of the pupils successfully." Undoubtedly most secondary-school offices contain records of each pupil—giving birthplace, nationality, religion, vocation of parents, etc.—but how many secondary-school principals are content with the bare collection of such data?

Again Mr. Reavis comments on the "tendency of well-trained principals to encourage extracurricular activities and incorporate the spirit of group effort found in these into the activities of the class room." Attempts with a selected group of secondary-school graduates to "incorporate the spirit of group effort," presumably acquired while in secondary school, leaves one questioning just how much "spirit" was ever acquired. The typical "group" in its combined efforts sug-

¹ Discussion by Miss Helen McKinstry, New York City

gests the ideal committee of three with two of the members dead.

Experience with "pupil leaders" and "student committees" composed of girls who bring from their high schools records of pronounced "leadership qualities" leads us to question how socially constructive have been such secondary-school experiences in leadership. I have two girls in mind who came to a training school direct from two of the very well-known "modern schools." Both had made records as "leaders" in secondary school. Both have been given similar positions of leadership in their present school. Both are flagrantly lacking in any feeling of social responsibility and both "courteously" decline to see any point of view but their own (usually a biased one).

With reference to the curriculum and especially to the question of "electives" one has only to evaluate annually some fifty to seventy-five secondary-school graduates' "transcripts of record" to wonder if anyone—to say nothing of the principal—has concerned himself with the content of a student's course of study. . . . There seems to be practically no vocational guidance in holding a student to even the fundamental requirements for the teaching profession, even with students who tell us they have been planning for years to go into this profession.

It is also interesting to note the numbers of secondary-school graduates found in more or less serious physical condition as the result of eye strain, infected tonsils, and neglected teeth.

In passing, it might also be mentioned that in a group of some ten college graduates, all physically strong and all high-average students, as shown by their college records—there was not one of them who did not exhibit marked phases of social maladjustment, and more or less serious personal maladjustment bordering on the morbid.

It is most obvious that not only principals but teachers should have supplementary training of some kind that will

make them awake to the problems and the future development of their pupils. If educational sociology can do this, let us have more of it.

THE CURRICULUM AND THE TEACHER EMERGENT²

Professor Cox is at his best in the "Curriculum Emergent" (*THE JOURNAL*, March, 1928). By looking at the social background which is remoulding our ways of action, and even more important by diagnosing our social foreground and future, he makes an ardent plea for a revision of the curriculum—a revision that will make it more meaningful to the child and, therefore, a more influential factor in acting as a telic agent in guiding our social structure toward eliminating certain sore spots with which it is at present encumbered. Too long have we been thinking that all education is limited to subject matter. Dr. Cox would have us give our prime emphasis to developing finer attitudes and broader ideals in children. He would place far less stress than we do now upon the building up of knowledges and skills.

The writer finds one great objection to the curriculum emergent which will prevent it from being put into practice for a long, long time. That factor is the teacher. The typical teacher is hardly competent to handle his work, such as it is, in the present curriculum. We forget the real teacher in theorizing our curriculum and build beautiful systems based upon the illusion that the people who conduct our classrooms are teachers in the philosophic conception of the term. Our idea of a teacher inspired by dreams of achieving the best for every child under his care is very far from the truth. The average teacher is no more than an average human being. He is not especially competent. He is more interested in what happened last night or what is going to happen tonight than he is in the class that is before him. Or, if he is an exceptional person, he is probably working for a higher position and giving far more attention to this than he is to his class.

² Discussion by Herbert A. Tonne, Elizabeth, N. J.

Occasionally it happens that some one finds that doing a fine piece of classroom work is the way to win promotion. This in the writer's opinion is the exception rather than the rule. Though he knows no actual study of the matter, he tends to believe that the factors that lead to promotion in the field of education are quite different from those that give incentive to doing a good job of classroom teaching. While it does happen at times that teachers care, and are capable of giving the best to their pupils, this situation is probably rare. At any rate, we cannot with justice assume that it is otherwise until a thorough study has been made of the problem.

The task of teaching the knowledges and skills is done poorly enough. Yet teachers have some understanding of these things, and they have textbooks to guide them. We expect to have our teachers, however, undertake a far more difficult work than that at which they are at present rather unsuccessful. Teachers who themselves frequently lack proper ideals and attitudes are to create situations which will enable their pupils to achieve proper ideals and attitudes! It is more than can reasonably be expected.

The writer does not in the least disagree with the philosophy behind the curriculum emergent set up by Professor Cox. It is, in the long run, futile, however, to set up curriculums which in theory meet the new situation with which we are confronted, unless our teaching personnel is really capable of using these curriculums. We must approach the task through the teacher. How to do so is another matter and a very difficult one at that. Until our teachers are really professional we work in vain. Teachers must receive sufficient pay and training, and social standing to give them a real professional attitude. They must look upon teaching as their life work and not as a mere "runner-up."

The teacher must be far more inspired with a zeal for higher ideals and more adequate attitudes than he typically now is, before we can even begin really to put into practice

the curriculum emergent. In fact the writer would venture the opinion that the newer conception of the curriculum makes the teacher the curriculum, rather than a mere user of the curriculum. It will be just so good as the teacher himself is, and no better. If he is average, his work will be mediocre (if the average is mediocre). If the school is to realize its great educational mission it must have well trained, highly intelligent, and deeply inspired men and women for teachers. Possibly the whole discussion might be summed up by proposing that the term, the *teacher emergent*, rather the *curriculum emergent*, be our hope and objective in educating society to achieve a higher plane of life.

BOOK REVIEWS

Readings in Educational Psychology, edited by C. E. SKINNER, I. M. GAST, and H. C. SKINNER. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1926, 833 pages.

All students of educational psychology who have wasted valuable hours in a library looking up numerous books of reference merely to read a paragraph or two in one, or a few pages in another, will welcome this book as a gift from the Gods of Psychology. It does not worship at any particular shrine, or follow any one school of thought. It lets the various leaders of the warring sects speak for themselves in their own language, their own words. There are more than five hundred quotations, varying in length from a paragraph to several pages, from eminent writers with diverse viewpoints such as: Thorndike, Horne, Dewey, Angell, Kilpatrick, Dunlap, Bagley, Judd, Watson, McDougall, Titchener, and many others.

Much of the important writings of many psychologists appeared in periodicals and has not been reprinted in book form. Many libraries do not contain complete files of these journals and a very valuable service has been done by the editors by selecting and making readily available a good deal of this material.

The book is connected into a complete view of the field of educational psychology by a short introduction to each of the twenty-four chapters, pointing out the significant differences and making suggestions as to the order in which the selections should be read. The chapters cover all the important topics and vary in length from ten pages to over one hundred pages. Another valuable feature of the book is the bibliography at the close of each chapter opening wide the door for more extensive reading. There is also a general bibliography and a good glossary of terms at the close of the volume. Thought-provoking questions and problems follow the selections in every chapter.

In the short time this book has been available it has proved its worth both as a textbook in educational psychology and as a source of supplementary readings. It is certainly a worth while investment for any student in this field.

HERBERT P. SMITH

A Short History of Women, by JOHN LANGDON-DAVIES.
New York: The Viking Press, 1927, 382 pages.

Studies of women are usually so permeated with sentiment and mythology that one turns with relief to a work based on scientific fact and authentic data. For centuries, the mystery of sex and the hallucinations concerning it prevented women from being afforded recognition as rational beings.

In order to interpret this almost universal sex phenomenon and to clear up some of the mystery which frequently surrounds it even in the present day, the author starts his history with a short exposition of the biology of sex. We have differentiated for us the factors in a woman as she is which are the result of her biological nature, and those which are the outcome of false notions, social conventions, and taboos.

The remainder of the book, with the exception of the epilogue, sets forth as its underlying theme that women's history has been entirely dependent on the interests, ambitions, and attitudes which successively occupied the minds of men. In primitive societies fear and the worship of fertility alternated in degrading or exalting the female. Dread of woman's uncleanness imposed unjust restraints and excluded her from the religious mysteries of the tribe. But though women were dangerous beings they nevertheless possessed the valuable monopoly of fertility, and in certain agricultural communities where men prized fertility more than they feared contamination, women attained power and were sometimes ardently worshiped.

Early stages of ancient civilizations provided the two requisites for woman's happiness, the worship of fertility and the right to work. At the dawn of reason and the birth of philosophy men transferred their interests to the fertility of their own minds. Manual labor was considered degrading and woman was deprived of her practical sphere of activities. Christianity lowered her status still further, for intense interest in immortality and the ascetic contempt for sexual life proved to be woman's greatest enemies. When she finally rebelled against the misogyny engendered by religious institutions and the worship of military glory characteristic of the age of chivalry, the three types of women of the middle ages developed, the nun, the witch, and the chatelaine. All three of these have continued into modern times, changed somewhat in detail as society has changed, but remaining fundamentally the same.

This series of essays will undoubtedly serve the purpose of stimulating thought and of arousing desire for more complete information. Readers will share the author's regret that it was not feasible for him to spend a longer period in producing an exhaustive study. One other regret will be that the epilogue was not in keeping with the scientific tone of the rest of the work. Most of us agree that family relationships are changing and that the future position of women must depend largely on whatever character the family group assumes. But only extreme feminist leaders venture to predict a new social order where women reign supreme and men have become deintellectualized. Since anything concerning the future must perforce be mere speculation, a happier prospect than the one portrayed in the epilogue would be that of the he and the she of the new society working together for the betterment of humanity, without either seeking to gain the upper hand at the expense of the other.

MARGUERITE DICKSON

Ethics of Achievement, by HERBERT PATTERSON and
RICHARD G. BADGER, 1928, 482 pages

Here is a comprehensive book of practical ethics easy to read and to teach. Its purpose is well indicated by the subtitle: "An Introduction to Character Education." The book itself undertakes to educate the character of its readers. One of the forty-six chapters, some twenty pages, is devoted to "How Can Schools Teach Achievement," reviewing mainly the Iowa Plan of Character Education.

The whole book is a series of 629 questions, with about three quarters of a page on the average devoted to each question. Definite answers in accord with the author's viewpoint are given each question. This viewpoint is a modified statement of the theory of self-realization as the goal of character formation and of an educated conscience as the guide. This theory is here called "achievement," in opposition to the two rejected theories of "Happiness" and "Power." Only these three ethical theories are considered.

There are a dozen historical chapters, each devoted to one great figure, like Confucius, Epicurus, Nietzsche; these the author suggests may be omitted to shorten the course.

Dr. Patterson, having served several years as dean of the Dakota Wesleyan University is now dean of the Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College. He draws his academic inspiration from Wesleyan and Yale and from his very wide reading. The index carries seventeen double-column pages.

The practical character of the treatment may be indicated by such chapter headings as these: "What Goal of Life Shall Be Mine?" "Am I Afraid of Death?" "Shall I Always Be Honest?" "Shall I Smoke?" "Am I Afraid of Hard Work?" "How Shall I Relax?" "What Shall I Read?" "How Can Music Aid Morality?" "How Shall I Endure Failure?"

In his philosophy, the author accepts freedom and is indebted to both pragmatism and idealism. Behaviorism is not introduced.

This is a good and useful book of its kind—the indoctrinating inspirational kind. Though using the question form for didactic purposes, its intent is rather to settle questions than to raise them. An inquiring student might easily find himself at odds with the book. Whether he then kept quiet and passed the examination or went on to do some thinking for himself would depend on his teacher. Ethics as the scientific study of character has so many moot questions that the opportunity for growth by inquiry and discussion in the classroom is very great. The author, or some one, should also write a book showing students *how* to think instead of *what* to think in the field of ethics. There is always great difficulty in combining successfully the attitude of ethical study, which is intellectual, with that of character formation, which is practical.

HERMAN H. HORNE

Making Citizens of the Mentally Limited, by HELEN DAVIS WHIPPLE. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1927, 374 pages.

This book treats of the subject matter to be taught subnormal pupils segregated in special classes of the public schools. The author has written the book "to help the teacher of the subnormal in the all-important task of selecting, adapting, and arranging subject matter to meet the needs of her charges." The writer assumes (1) that subnormal children may profit from a carefully planned curriculum; (2) that there is little gained from locating, examining, and segregating subnormal children when the teacher has little more for a program than the adjuration "Keep them busy" or "Use your own judgment in planning what to do with them." As one reads through the volume, it is evident that this author has accomplished all that she intended. The book is rich in its offering of practical suggestions to teachers of the mentally handicapped. The material presented is a composite of the best practices of the best teachers. Moreover, it has been selected and arranged so as to conform to sound principles of psychology. It is assumed that the teacher who will use the book will be familiar with the psychology of the subnormal child. Consequently, very little about this field of psychology is said except as it is related to specific bits of subject matter. The author in keeping with the latest movement in curriculum construction attempts to outline the facts, habits, skills, and attitudes that should be sought as desirable outcomes of instruction. Although the author mistrusts the teacher's ability to select suitable curriculum materials, arrangement of the materials to grade levels, and problems of method in grade placement, in a measure, are left to the judgment of the teacher. In defense of this position, the writer argues that the amount of individual instruction necessary in a special class makes grade placement in the ordinary sense of the term impossible, and that the needs of special-class children vary so widely and that their previous training is so uneven that definite prescription as to what they should learn each year is both difficult and unwise. Arrangement of material according to grade level is made still more difficult owing to the fact that it takes a great deal of repetition to fix facts in the mind of the subnormal.

The materials presented in the curriculum have been chosen in accordance with six principles which appear to be valid. To the reviewer, the book fills a real need. It should be in the hands of every teacher of subnormal children.

CHARLES E. SKINNER

Rural Sociology; A Study of Rural Problems, by CARL C. TAYLOR. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1928, 502 pages.

To one conversant with agriculture in the United States there are to be noted three distinct and constructive tendencies toward the solution and improvement of the farm problem: The first of these is the organization of the "tillers of the soil" into trade or occupational bureaus of local, State, and national units, the second grows out of the first, namely, the farmers' entry into politics as is and has been manifest in the "agricultural bloc" for political action in Congress; and the third, which possibly is responsible for the others, is the increasing number of the students of social sciences who have approached the problem scientifically and have developed a large literature in the field of rural social economy. The farmer has been quick to see and seize hold of the new conception of scientifically and cooperatively controlling his industry. Rapid strides are being made. The farmer owes much of his understanding and guidance to such elemental and worthwhile treatises as the one herein reviewed. Professor Taylor has had a life interest in the study of rural life and, besides, he brings to the problem the scholarship and research technique of a trained social scientist. This immediately gives status and value to the book. The author approaches rural sociology from the viewpoint of the problems involved. He attempts to study not only the origins of these problems but to "analyze the forces and conditions which constitute" them as well as the suggested solutions. The book is of three sections: Part One, "The Foundations of Rural Society", Part Two, "Rural Social Problems," and Part Three, "The Farmer and His Society." He covers the full range of social institutions in a careful, scholarly fashion. His style is simple and the book makes interesting reading. A book of this kind and quality should, in the opinion of the reviewer, find a large use in teacher-training institutions giving the teacher a new understanding of the life of the people of one of America's major industries.

BENJAMIN FLOYD STALCUP

Education in a Democratic World, by ERNEST DE WITT BURTON. Edited by H. R. Willoughby. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1927, 165 pages.

This highly stimulating and significant book is a collection of addresses of the late President Burton of Chicago which had been delivered on various occasions. The text is prefaced with an introduction by Dean William F. Russell of Teachers College, Columbia University.

Possibly the most significant address is the one given first and from which the book receives its title—"Education in a Democratic World." This address is filled with striking statements which are at the same time sound and scholarly.

Some of the addresses are distinctly personal in type. One address to students on the "Habits of Students" is characterized by potent idealism. Old ideas are expressed in new and stimulating forms and an effort is made to give the student himself a sense of responsibility for his entire life conduct. Another address along similar lines deals with the obligations of the educator and especially has in mind the professional and social needs of teachers. He urges the graduates to continue their education throughout life, to be "apostles of education" and to assume the responsible task of creating a better society.

He further recommends a painstaking and fair-minded investigation of the many questions which arise in political life and recognizes that while the university is making a few high-minded politicians, it ought to concern itself with the making of many political-minded citizens.

In an address on "Business and Scholarship," President Burton laments the fact that the world of business and the world of scholarship are largely separated from each other, that scholars and business men work at different tasks and seek different results, with the consequence that they do not understand one another. He goes on to show how dependent the world of business is upon modern scientific research and shows how scientific investigation is being given its larger usefulness in practical affairs.

One finishes the reading of these pages with many fresh points of view, and with an increased sense of responsibility to meet the high ideals which are here set forth. The book is chiefly characterized by a sane, sensible philosophy, especially notable for its wide vision and for its recognition of the values of research as a means of attaining the ideals which are set forth. No educator, especially those who are connected with higher institutions of learning, can afford to neglect the reading of this book.

PAUL V. WEST

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Early in the year the department of educational sociology, School of Education, New York University, received a subvention of thirty-six thousand dollars from one of the foundations for the purpose of launching a boys' study club program in a local community and its boy problems in the City of New York. The boys' club of a possible total capacity of six thousand boys will be used as the laboratory for this study. Announcement was made that there would be appointed a number of research fellowships as well as tuition fellowships for research in graduate study in the department of educational sociology. This particular boys' study work is being organized with Assistant Professor Frederic M. Thrasher as director. He is pleased to make the following announcements relative to the boys' study club program. Professor Thrasher is the author of *The Gang* and has had wide experience in training the scientific worker in the field of social research.

The following are the fellows who have been appointed for the boys' study club for 1928-1929. They were selected from a list of ninety applicants presenting unusually high-grade credentials. The scholarships will be announced in a later issue. In addition to being a fellow, Mr C. E. Hendry will be supervisor of field work. An advisory council composed of representatives of the social agencies in the area to be studied and of experts in various fields of social research is being formed.

1 Charles E. Hendry, A.B., McMaster University (honor matriculant, 1922), A.M., Teachers College and Columbia University; extensive boys' work experience in administration and camps; research staff of International Boys' Club Federation; has conducted research studies of boy delinquency in Brooklyn, of Canadian Provincial Boys' Parliaments, and summer camps for boys; experience in mental testing, woodcraft, and debating.

2. Mazie Earle Wagner, A.B. and A.M., with honors, from the University of Buffalo where she was a scholarship holder, special training in social research, University of Chicago, special statistical training with leading statisticians, statistical assistant of Professor William E. Ogburn, University of Chicago; instructor in psychology and sociology, University of Buffalo, mental testing experience, expert stenographic, secretarial, and statistical work; operation of calculating machines and statistical manipulation, her articles have appeared in professional journals.

3. Robert L. Whitley, A.B., East Texas State Teachers College; A.M. (in sociology), University of Texas; high scholastic records and member of scholarship society, director of play activities of junior boys, special research experience under sociological direction, versatility in college activities; two years' experience as teacher of economics and sociology, English, and public speaking.

4 James M Smith, A.B., Southwestern Presbyterian University; A.M., Vanderbilt University; special research and sociological training, University of Chicago, experience in football and basketball in college, member honorary scholastic fraternity; honors in tennis, member national leaders' fraternity, president of college fraternity for three years, director of boys' club for three years, assistant athletic coach in high school; helped organize boys' baseball league; head of boys' debating club one year, experience in statistics and intelligence testing, extensive experience under expert sociological guidance in making case studies and doing correctional work with boys; case studies of precocious children and paranoiacs; one year's experience in high-school teaching; assistant registrar and alumni secretary, experience in library work, high scholastic record

5 George Stautz, Jr., senior, Illinois Wesleyan University, "crack" athlete and experienced in all sports, sociological training and research experience, light heavyweight boxing champion of Illinois in amateur class; successful experience in dealing with groups of problem boys, dramatic and musical experience, head cheerleader of college

6 Giovanni E Schiavo, A.B., Johns Hopkins University; postgraduate work in Johns Hopkins and Columbia; holder of Woodyear and Hopkins scholarship at Johns Hopkins; author of book now in press on *The Italians in Chicago*; research experience among Italians in connection with the study made by the Association for Criminal Justice in Chicago and Illinois for the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology, reads and speaks fluently English, Italian, French, and Spanish, teacher of foreign language; knows many of the Italian dialects; knows New York neighborhoods, racial and national communities, thorough knowledge of Sicilian backgrounds; newspaper and editorial writing, extensive business experience.

7. Percy A. Robert, A.B., Loyola College (Montreal); A.M., McGill University; diploma from McGill School of Social Workers, excellent scholastic record; director, University Settlement boys' camp; field work in Montreal Children's Bureau and Montreal Council of Mental Hygiene; ecological and historical social research on a disorganized neighborhood in Montreal; boxing, hockey, and baseball experience in college, library experience.

8 E. H. Haddock, A.B., Furman University; A.M., Vanderbilt University, received general excellence medal from Furman University upon graduation, member of honorary social science fraternity, varsity track, teaching experience in English and mathematics in a preparatory school, very high scholastic record; research assistant at Vanderbilt University, special training and experience in sociological field work, special experience in making case studies of boy delinquents and special ability in getting facts from boys.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Dr. Nathan Miller, who is an assistant professor of economics and sociology of the Carnegie Institute of Technology of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, received the A.M. and the Ph D. degrees from Yale University. Dr. Miller has been a contributor to periodicals and is the author of a new anthropological study, *The Child in Primitive Society*.

A sketch of Miss Mazie Earle Wagner appears in "News from the Field." Miss Wagner is one of the newly appointed research fellows in educational sociology of the School of Education of New York University

Professor H. L. Pritchett is head of the department of sociology in Southern Methodist University of Dallas, Texas. During the past year he has been on leave of absence studying at New York University, where he has received his doctor's degree

For sketches of the other contributors the reader is referred to the previous issues of THE JOURNAL.

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EDITORIAL NOTES

Recent years have witnessed a very rapid development in psychiatric clinics established for the purpose of child correction and child guidance, particularly with reference to mental hygiene and behavior problems of all sorts such as truancy, delinquency, and the like. In the earliest development these clinics were identified with juvenile courts to aid the court in the wise disposition and effective handling of delinquents brought in by social workers and assigned to social workers or reform schools and other agencies. More recently these clinics have served a wider purpose and many of them are established already by school systems as a means of prevention; that is, they are designed to handle the child before he comes to the juvenile court or reaches the state of delinquency.

It is generally conceded that these clinics, manned by psychiatrists, have been limited in outlook and have not given due attention to the social factors involved in behavior. The psychiatrist is inclined to look for instances of behavior problems in abnormal physiological or psychological conditions. More recent evidence warrants the conclusion that most problems are not the result of abnormal conditions but are the result of the social situations under which experiences have been acquired. For that reason there is an imperative need, widely felt, for clinics that take into full account the social

factors involved in behavior difficulties. A social behavior clinic is designed to meet that condition.

The social behavior clinic, therefore, may serve two purposes. First, the training of social workers, visiting teachers, school administrators, and sociologists to head up such clinics in public-school systems. This is no little part of the function of such a clinic in a School of Education. Second, the social behavior clinic will provide opportunity for scientific research into the causes and nature of behavior problems and will thus provide a body of data that will ensure wisdom in the handling of problem children. This phase of the work of the clinic is primarily conceived for its contributions to research and research technique in educational sociology. The purpose is to bring together experts in the various fields, the physician, the sociologist, the psychiatrist, the psychologist, and the social worker, and through the utilization of all these skilled experts to discover the causes and provide the cure of social ills. It is the purpose of the clinic to provide research into the weaknesses and strength of personality, the factors in the development of personality, and the criteria for its adequate development.

The social behavior clinic therefore becomes an agency of teacher training and a means of scientific research. The department of educational sociology of New York University has planned to have such a clinic in the new building. Professor Zorbaugh will head this clinic as its director. This development along with the research project under the direction of Professor Thrasher establishes a new era in the creation of a science of educational sociology.

CURRICULUM AND MEASUREMENT

J. L. MERIAM

The article by Superintendent Washburne and his research assistant, Rath, in the November issue of *The Elementary School Journal* entitled, "The High School Achievement of Children Trained Under the Individual Technique," is a type of educational report greatly needed. I submit further evidence in support of Washburne's general conclusions with the hope of encouraging others to use the method of measurement here exhibited.

Superintendent Washburne has been carrying on an interesting experiment in education—the more interesting because the experiment is in a regular public-school system. Conditions are thus normal. Results may be more convincing by reason of this condition. Mr. Washburne began his experiment in the schools of Winnetka in the fall of 1919. He states that it was four or five years later when the reorganization of the schools was "fairly complete." He continued the experiment four years more before measuring the results as reported in the article referred to above.

THE PROBLEM

Washburne's method of measurement is not that of the conventional standardized tests, but that of comparing the high-school attainments of his former pupils with those of other students in that high school who had had, in other elementary schools, quite a different training. Here is a bit of looseness in method readily recognized. That is, high-school achievement is not—at least, may not be—the product of elementary-school work alone. Experience out of school has doubtless been a teacher, good or bad. And there are thus many influences beyond our present ability to consider. Pending the advancement of our educational research, we may tentatively assume that two groups of pupils, in a given school area, will have sufficiently similar out-of-school experiences to warrant the conclusion that differences in high-school work are largely due to differences in

elementary school training. It must be emphasized, however, that such conclusions are dependent upon the validity of the assumptions made. Such conclusions are necessarily inaccurate to the extent that not all of the influential agencies in the pupils' progress have been taken into account. In his study Washburne presents a table of median intelligence scores showing no significant differences in respect to intelligence.

Washburne was naturally interested in knowing how his method of "individual technique" affected his pupils. He chose the method of waiting until his elementary-school pupils advanced into the high school. He then compared the grades these pupils received with those received by other students in that high school who came from other elementary schools. He presents a table¹ of distribution of grades received by Winnetka pupils compared with "all others," in the major subjects of the high-school course. This table is in terms of numerical equivalents for grades as follows: A = 4, B = 3, C = 2, D = 1, F = 0. A summary of this table shows:

	Eng.	Math.	Hist.	Sci.	Lang.	Com.	Man.	Arts.	Total
Winnetka	2 27	2 19	2 07	2 02	2 12	2 12	2 12	2.29	2.16
All others.. .	2.17	2 04	2 01	1 97	1 95	2.26	2.30	2.07	

It is readily noted that Winnetka is superior—however slight—in all subjects save commerce and manual arts. A footnote to Washburne's article states: "A difference in scholastic average of .20 or greater was found to be significant." A correction was published in *The Elementary School Journal* a month later stating that this footnote was in error. However, Washburne claims a significant superiority of the Winnetka pupils in mathematics and languages, and also a superiority in the general summary of all subjects and all classes. The scholastic differences in these three cases are recognized as .15, .17, and .09, respectively.

These differences do not make out a clear and strong case for Winnetka. I venture to present other aspects of Washburne's data and supplement data from another school in the

¹ *Elementary School Journal*, xxviii, 219

hope of making out a better case for the Winnetka schools, and experiments of that character.

THE DATA

I secured from Superintendent Washburne the distribution of grades; i.e., the number of A's, B's, C's, D's, and F's, given in the various high-school subjects. These distributions are expressed in percentages in Table I. This table includes also distributions of grades in a similar study made at the University of Missouri reported in 1915² and again in 1920.³

In the Missouri study the grades E (excellent), S (superior), M (medium), I (inferior), and F (failure) were used. A comparison of the achievements of these two schools can be made only by assuming the correspondence of the two five-division scales, $\begin{smallmatrix} A, B, C, D, F \\ E, S, M, I, F \end{smallmatrix}$, this assumption may be allowed for the present study. In Table I the column headed E shows the percentage distribution of grades given in an orthodox city high school (Columbia, Missouri) to students who had their elementary-school work in the experimental (E) school.⁴ Column C shows the distribution of grades for the entire city high school including the relatively few students from the E school. Column W shows the distribution of grades given to students with previous schooling in the Winnetka grade schools. Similarly column O shows distribution for students from all other schools with which the Winnetka schools were compared. To make the Winnetka study comparable with the Missouri study, the original grades for columns W and O were combined by actual count to make the column WO. This then corresponds in character to column C.

Thus Table I may be read. Four-and-five-tenths per cent of all grades received in high-school English classes by students trained in the Missouri experimental school were of the highest grade E, while 2.7 per cent was the standard for the city high school in which these students were enrolled. Similarly, 9 per cent of the grades received by students from the

² *Journal of Educational Psychology*, vi, 361-364, 1915

³ Meriam, J. L., *Child Life and the Curriculum*, p. 451

⁴ Described in Meriam's *Child Life and the Curriculum*

Winnetka grade schools were of this high-grade A, compared with 8.5 per cent as the standard for the whole of this high school.

TABLE I
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF GRADES

		E	C	W	WO	O
English	EA	4.5	2.7	9.0	8.5	8.4
	SB	30.9	27.7	35.6	31.6	30.4
	MC	46.2	38.3	35.6	37.9	38.7
	ID	16.0	23.8	13.6	14.6	14.9
	FF	2.3	7.2	6.3	7.3	7.5
Languages ^a	EA	3.5	1.5	7.0	7.2	7.2
	SB	54.1	28.3	29.6	27.1	26.3
	MC	27.5	32.5	40.8	35.1	33.3
	ID	10.0	22.8	13.0	18.4	20.1
	FF	4.8	15.0	9.5	12.1	13.0
History	EA	3.1	2.3	6.3	7.1	7.4
	SB	35.9	27.2	25.2	24.0	23.6
	MC	43.3	51.7	43.7	40.3	39.2
	ID	12.5	14.5	18.4	20.6	21.4
	FF	4.8	4.1	6.3	7.8	8.3
Mathematics	EA	2.9	0.0	11.6	11.2	11.1
	SB	31.1	22.9	30.2	26.1	24.8
	MC	30.6	24.9	30.6	32.8	33.5
	ID	18.9	29.3	20.1	18.7	18.3
	FF	8.4	22.6	7.4	11.1	12.3
Science and Manual Arts and Home Economics	EA	3.3	5.8	4.7	7.0	7.5
	SB	21.4	31.2	32.4	26.7	25.4
	MC	65.9	53.4	41.2	41.2	41.3
	ID	9.3	8.3	14.8	19.9	21.0
	FF	0.0	0.2	6.7	5.1	4.7
Average ^b Major High-School Subjects	EA	3.4	2.3	7.7	8.2	8.3
	SB	39.2	27.5	30.6	27.1	26.1
	MC	40.2	38.9	38.4	37.4	37.2
	ID	12.8	20.3	16.0	18.4	19.1
	FF	4.2	10.7	7.2	8.7	9.1

TABLE II
HIGH GRADES (E+S, A+B)

	E	C	W	WO	O
English.	35.4	30.4	44.6	40.1	38.8
Languages.	57.6	29.8	36.6	34.3	33.5
History	39.0	29.5	31.5	31.1	31.0
Mathematics.	34.0	22.9	41.8	37.3	35.9
Science, Manual Arts, and Home Economics		37.0	37.1	33.7	32.9
Average.	42.6	29.8	38.3	35.3	34.4

^a German and Latin, two subjects in the Missouri school, are here combined under "Language" to correspond with the Winnetka school.

^b Commercial subjects in the Winnetka schools are omitted to correspond with the Missouri school which did not include commercial subjects.

TABLE III
LOW GRADES (I+F, D+F)

	E	C	W	WO	O
English.....	18.3	31.0	19.9	21.9	22.4
Languages.....	14.8	37.8	22.5	30.5	33.1
History.....	17.3	18.6	24.7	28.4	29.7
Mathematics.....	27.3	51.9	27.5	29.8	30.6
Science, Manual Arts, and Home Economics	9.3	8.5	21.5	25.0	25.7
Average.....	17.0	31.0	23.2	27.1	28.2

TABLE IV
AVERAGE MARKS
Using numerical equivalents for grades

	E	C	W	WO	O
English.....	2.19	1.94	2.27	2.19	2.17
Languages.....	2.41	1.78	2.12	1.98	1.95
History.....	2.19	2.08	2.07	2.01	2.01
Mathematics.....	1.85	1.47	2.19	2.07	2.04
Science, Manual Arts, and Home Economics	2.18	2.31	2.13	2.10	2.10
Average.....	2.24	1.89	2.16	2.09	2.07

TABLE V
MEDIAN MARKS
Using numerical equivalents for grades

	E	C	W	WO	O
English.....	2.69	2.49	2.85	2.74	2.71
Languages.....	3.14	2.38	2.68	2.55	2.51
History.....	2.75	2.61	2.58	2.54	2.52
Mathematics.....	2.48	1.91	2.73	2.61	2.58
Science, Manual Arts, and Home Economics	2.63	2.76	2.69	2.61	2.59
Average.....	2.82	2.48	2.70	2.61	2.58

Table II shows a grouping of the high grades combined and Table III a grouping of the low grades combined. Thus in these two tables, freed from the general middle class (grades M and C), the reader can more readily note the percentage of better and poorer grades.

Table IV presents the average marks in the major high-school subjects on the basis of the numerical equivalents used in Washburne's study as indicated above; viz., E and A=4, S and B=3, M and C=2, I and D=1, F and F=0. This table is thus arranged to make possible a comparison of data used by Washburne.

Table V is similar to Table IV except that the median marks are given. This is thus arranged to make possible a comparison with data used in the Missouri experiment.⁷

⁷ See Table XII in Meriam, *Child Life and the Curriculum*, p. 451

INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Look now at Table I; compare the percentages of grades in column W with those in column WO. One readily gets the impression that in the New Trier Township High School, pupils from the Winnetka grade schools have a higher percentage of the better grades and a lower percentage of poorer grades, compared with the standard for that high school. There are five minor exceptions, in these 24 comparisons. But an examination of Tables II and III, where the two better grades are combined and similarly the two poorer grades, shows a perfectly consistent higher standing of the Winnetka pupils. Similarly Tables IV and V show uniformly more of the better grades and fewer of the poorer grades.

Compare columns E and C in like manner: the Missouri University Experimental School and the Columbia (Missouri) High School. In Table I the experimental school pupils have better grades in all but three of the 24 comparisons. In Tables II and III there are two exceptions, and the same exceptions in Table IV and V.

The *amount* of difference between the grades of the Winnetka and the Missouri pupils on the one side and the grades indicated by the standards in the two high schools on the other side may not be tremendously significant, but the consistency of the superiority becomes positively significant.

But there is one aspect of quantitative difference that merits attention. Note in Table II the amount of superiority of the "average" high grades of the E pupils over the C pupils; viz., 12.8. Similarly the difference between the W pupils and the WO pupils is only 3.0. Likewise in Table III the difference in the "average" low grades is 14.0 and 3.9, respectively. These figures clearly indicate that the superiority of the pupils in the Missouri Experimental School over the standard in that city high school is greater than the superiority of the Winnetka pupils over the standard in the high school they attended. This comparison is yet more striking when one notes in the average grades in Table I that obviously the standard of grading for C is higher than for WO. In the

former 29.8 per cent of grades are E and S while in the latter 35.3 per cent are of similar rank. The C school gives 31.0 per cent of its grades as I and F, while the WO schools gives only 27.1 per cent as poor grades.

CONCLUSIONS

In his study referred to above, Washburne quite naturally explains the slight superiority of his pupils as due to the "individual technique" emphasized in the Winnetka schools. This individual technique is kin to the Dalton laboratory plan. The individual progresses as his ability and inclination warrant. All pupils have a given minimum standard to meet the conventional school subjects. There surely are merits in this technique, and Superintendent Washburne knows his own school. However, the figures given above and the "group and creative activities" which "occupy on the program about half of each morning and half of each afternoon"¹ lead me to propose another interpretation.

In the conclusions to his own study, Washburne mentions—without emphasis—the leadership of the Winnetka pupils in extracurriculum activities and various pupil organizations. His Tables VI and VII are good evidence. There is a marked tendency in recent years to lessen the time and attention to the conventional three R's, without lowering in the least the standards of achievement. The Winnetka program noted in the previous paragraph is one item of good evidence. But I think Washburne misinterprets his own school when he declares ". . . the high-school record of Winnetka pupils has significance in a general evaluation of the individual technique."

The Winnetka program provides one half the forenoon and one half the afternoon for creative activities aside from the conventional three R's. My experiment at the University of Missouri provided a program of *all* the forenoon and *all* the afternoon on such activities—with no provision for the conventional school subjects or for "individual technique" in such subjects. Results? The Winnetka pupils with half

¹ Washburne, "A Survey of the Winnetka Public Schools," pp 20-21

time on such creative activities—not generally prominent in the conventional grade schools—did noticeably better high-school work than did their school mates. With double that time and emphasis on such creative activities and without any “technique” on the three R’s, the pupils of the Missouri experiment not only excelled the standard in their high school, but also surpassed the superiority of the Winnetka pupils—as indicated by the figures above. It seems, therefore, probable that the creative activities in a much enriched curriculum is a far more contributing factor than the individual technique.

If this interpretation is at all sane these two experiments ought to prompt other similar ones. And the public, whose servants the schools are, would welcome such movements.

One other conclusion. These two experiments exhibit a method of measurement needing more attention. In each case those studying the problem waited about ten years to allow normal results to be the measurement of achievement. Tests of school work in terms of that selfsame school work is a form of inbreeding. There is need of measurement in terms of the larger educational objectives. Success in high-school work—even as measured by grades—is only one aspect of the objectives for grade-school study. It is one measure. To measure much further in terms of home life, public life, industry, leisure, opens great possibilities.

THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF THREE SCHOOL POPULATIONS

VERNER MARTIN SIMS

The relative differences among the homes possessed by various social groups has long been a favorite subject for speculation, but definite and reliable information has awaited the appearance of a group instrument that would give an objective and quantitative measure of home conditions. The Sims score card for socio-economic status claims to be such an instrument. This score card, a group measure suitable for use in grades IV to XII, consists of a series of twenty-three questions relative to the cultural, social, and economic conditions of the home from which the testee comes. These questions were selected from a total list of 56 such questions on the basis of:

1. The ability of the child to furnish the information.
2. The internal consistency as a part of the total series, measured by:
 - a Relatively high correlation with the total of all other questions.
 - b Relatively low degree of association with the other question
3. The reliability as measured by the percent of like answers given by paired siblings from the same home.
4. The per cent of the population studied that possessed the item called for in the question

The directions for giving, the phraseology of the questions, the method of answering, supplementary questions, and the system of scoring have, through experimentation, been so worked out as to make the entire procedure objective and to reduce errors and misrepresentations to a minimum.

In another paper¹ the writer has presented the socio-economic status of a selected group of occupations. The purpose of the present paper is to report in detail the results obtained from the giving of the score card to three school populations, these populations more or less representing three different communities: city, town, and country. The groups tested were: (1) 638 sixth, seventh, and eighth grade

¹ *Journal of Educational Research*, June, 1928

children in the city of New Haven, Connecticut; (2) 180 fifth, sixth, and seventh grade children in the town of Ruston, Louisiana; and (3) 227 fifth, sixth, and seventh grade children in the consolidated rural schools of Lincoln Parish, in Louisiana.

New Haven, a city of approximately 175,000 population, is probably slightly superior to the average industrial city because of the presence within its limits of one of the larger universities. The 638 cases were selected from the city's school population as follows: The superintendent was asked to select five schools, three of these drawing its pupils from homes which he considered representative of the average homes in the city, one drawing pupils from the very poor homes, and one drawing from the better homes of the city. In each of these five schools, one section or classroom from the sixth grade, one from the seventh, and one from the eighth were tested, each section or classroom having been recommended by the principal as representative of its particular grade. Thus the records of fifteen sections or classrooms scattered throughout the city were secured.

Ruston, Louisiana, a town of approximately 5,000 population, is, in the opinion of the writer, rather above the average Southern town. Within its limits is located one of the State colleges of Louisiana, and because of its nearness to oil and lumber resources there are found among its residents an abnormally large number of wealthy people. The town has two elementary schools for white children. The 180 cases here mentioned included all of the fifth, sixth, and seventh grade children in one of these schools and all of the fifth and seventh grade pupils in the second school that were present on the particular days that the schools were visited. In Louisiana but seven years of elementary education are maintained; consequently, here, as in New Haven, the group represents the last three years of the elementary school.

The rural school group of 227 cases constituted the entire fifth, sixth, and seventh grade population of three or four consolidated schools that are located in the parish and the fifth and sixth grade population of the fourth one. Lincoln Parish is the parish in which Ruston is located and to a certain

extent is subject to the same selective conditions as the town; but in addition the group tested made up but about two thirds of the entire parish population for these three grades, the remaining one third being found in small one- and two-room schools. This rural group, then, is perhaps of a higher level than the average school community.

The economic or cultural facts called for in the several questions contained in the score card, followed by the abbreviated form which will be used to designate the question, are as follows:

CONDITION CALLED FOR IN QUESTION	ABBREVIATION
1. Presence of a telephone in the home.	Telephone
2. Presence of a furnace in the home	Furnace
3. Presence of a bathroom in the home.	Bath
4. Possession of a bank account in own name.	Bank Acc't
5. Father having attended college	Father College
6. Mother having attended college	Mother College
7. Father having attended high school.	Father High School
8. Mother having attended high school	Mother High School
9. Mother attends lectures.	Mother Lectures
10. Own room for study.	Own Room
11. Private lessons in music taken	Music Lessons
12. Private lessons in dancing taken.	Dancing Lessons
13. Mother belongs to clubs	Mother Clubs
14. Membership in clubs that require dues	Clubs
15. Family attends concerts.	Concerts
16. Vacations spent away from home.	Vacations Away
17. Having regular dental work done	Regular Dental Work
18. Presence of servants in the home.	Servants
19. Possession by the family of an automobile	Auto
20. Magazines subscribed to by the family	Magazines
21. Books possessed in the home	Books
22. Ratio of the persons per room	Room Person
23. Occupation of the father.	Father's Occupation

Table I presents the percentage of each of the three populations answering each of these questions and the percentage possessing the item or condition called for in each question; part 1 presenting those questions that are dichotomous, that is simply possessed or not possessed, part 2 presenting those where the amount of possession is a variable. The ratio of the persons to a room is secured by dividing the number of rooms the family occupies by the number of persons in the family. On the basis of the information furnished concerning the occupation of the father, the occupation is classified in one of the following groups:

Group I. Professional men, proprietors of large businesses, and high executives; also bankers, brokers, inspectors (government and railroad, but not shop inspectors).

Group II. Commercial service, clerical service, large land-owners, managerial service of a lower order than in Group I, and business proprietors employing from five to ten men.

Group III. Artisan proprietors, petty officials, printing trades employees, skilled laborers with some managerial responsibility, shop owners, farmers and business proprietors employing one to five men.

Group IV. Skilled laborers (with exception of printers), who work for some one else, building trades, transportation trades, manufacturing trades involving skilled labor, personal service. Small shop owners and farmers doing their own work.

Group V. Unskilled laborers, common laborers, helpers, "hands," peddlers, varied employment, vendors, tenants, unemployed (unless it represents the leisured class or retired).

TABLE I

PART I	CITY		TOWN		COUNTRY	
	No. Ans.	% Poss.	No. Ans.	% Poss.	No. Ans.	% Poss.
1. Telephone.	638	42	180	63	227	32
2. Furnace.	638	48	180	01	227	02
3. Bath.	635	80	180	57	227	20
4. Bank Account	632	52	180	33	227	20
5. Father College	638	11	180	25	227	18
6. Mother College.	638	05	180	30	226	16
7. Father High School	638	29	180	72	225	55
8. Mother High School	638	28	180	73	224	56
9. Mother Lectures.	638	18	180	33	223	21
10. Own room.	638	43	180	54	227	48
11. Music Lessons	638	30	180	13	227	06
12. Dancing Lessons.	638	07	180	01	227	004
13. Mother Clubs.	630	35	180	38	225	22
14. Clubs	626	43	180	31	227	06
15. Concerts	630	49	180	79	227	90
16. Vacations Away.	631	50	180	67	227	45
17. Regular Dental Work.	624	25	180	26	227	09

PART 2

18. Servants	No. Ans.	% possessing: One or more all the time	One part time	None		
City	631	.09	.08	.83		
Town	180	.10	.33	.57		
Country.	227	.06	.15	.79		
19. Auto.	No. Ans.	% possessing: Two or more	One	None		
City	637	.07	.33	.60		
Town	180	.13	.58	.29		
Country.. . . .	227	.06	.51	.43		
20. Magazines.	No. Ans.	% possessing: Three or more	Two	One	None	
City	629	.38	.24	.15	.23	
Town	180	.48	.19	.19	.14	
Country.	226	.22	.18	.27	.33	
21. Books	No. Ans.	% possessing: 501 or more	500-126	125-26	26-0	
City	614	.05	.16	.27	.52	
Town	180	.06	.15	.35	.44	
Country.. . . .	227	.02	.08	.27	.63	
22. Room Persons	No. Ans.	% possessing: 2 01 plus	2.00-1.51	1.50-1 01	1.00- .51	.50-0
City	634	.05	.13	.20	.53	.09
Town.....	178	.06	.05	.24	.58	.07
Country....	222	.03	.03	.20	.67	.07
23. Father's Occupation	No. Ans.	% possessing: Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV	Group V
City	604	.12	.14	.27	.28	.20
Town.	177	.05	.18	.43	.25	.09
Country.....	225	.04	.07	.49	.29	.11

Examination of part I indicates that the town group surpassed the other two groups in percentage possessing on questions 1 (telephone), 5, 6, 7, 8 (parents' education), 9 (mother lectures), 10 (own room), 13 (mother clubs), and 16 (vacations away). The city group surpassed the other groups on questions 2 (furnace), 3 (bath), 4 (bank account), 11 (music lessons), 12 (dancing lessons) and 14 (clubs). The country group surpassed the other groups on question 15 (concert). While in the case of question 17 (dental work) the city and town group rank about the same, both surpassing the country group. In part 2 it is not so easy to decide upon the groups that surpass, but it seems that the town group surpassed the other groups on questions 18 (servants), 19 (auto), 20 (magazines), and 21 (books); while on questions 22 (room persons) and 23 (father's occupation) the town and city scored about alike, definitely surpassing the country

on question 22 and perhaps being superior to this group on question 23. This last question is doubtful, however, because of the fact that occupational group III, which includes small farmers, was extremely large in the country population. In the case of group I, which includes professional men and large business men, the city surpassed the other population; but the town made up of this difference on groups II and III.

The disadvantage and danger involved in using isolated items as measures of home conditions are readily seen from the material here presented. Depending upon the item used, any one of these three groups might be pronounced superior to the others. The existing differences among the homes from which these pupils come can best be shown by combining these questions into a total and comparing these totals. Elsewhere² the writer has described how each question in the score card is given a weighting depending upon its value as a part of the total, and how these weights are totaled and averaged to secure a measure of the socio-economic status. The possible score of an individual may range from 36 to 0.

Table II presents the average score, the standard deviation, and the sigma of unreliability of the average of the three distributions under consideration. It will be seen that the town averaged highest, the city second, and the country lowest; but, what is even more interesting, the range of the city group was greatest, that of the town second, and the country group came last with a very narrow range. That is, in this city there is found a wide range, many extremely high ranking homes and many extremely low ranking homes; in the town this range is not so great; while in the country the range is very narrow and at the lower end of the distribution table.

That these differences are true differences so far as the groups here used are concerned is shown by the following

TABLE III
The average score and standard deviation of each group

	Average	S. D.	% of unreliability of average
City.....	13 56	7 02	.26
Town ..	16 84	6.08	.45
Country. . .	11.16	4.48	.29

² "Measurement of Socio-economic Status," Public School Publishing Co.

facts. The difference between the town and city averages is 2.28, while the sigma of unreliability of this difference^a is .52; that is, the difference is more than four times the sigma of unreliability and is a true difference. The difference of 5.68 between the town and country averages is approximately eleven times its sigma of unreliability which is .53; and the difference of 2.40 between the city and country averages is more than six times the sigma of unreliability of this difference which is .39. We may conclude then that there is but slight chance of averages determined from similar groups ever overlapping.

The interpretation of these results is a delicate task. If we can assume a fair sampling from the New Haven school system, three possible explanations are presented: (1) the questions used, neither singly nor as a whole, have like significance in the three communities; (2) the schools, with a different degree of rigidity, selecting their enrollment from the total homes of the respective communities; (3) there are actual differences in the socio-economic status of the homes found in the different communities.

Taken singly some of the questions obviously do not have like significance in the three communities. For example, the possession of a furnace is by far a greater luxury in the southern communities than in the northern city; while, on the other hand, servants would probably be found in the homes of the South more frequently than in those of the North because of the cheapness of labor; or, the possession of a bathroom is much less expensive, and thus more within the reach of the economically poorer homes in the city and town than within the reach of those in the rural community; while concerts in the form of community productions of an amateur nature are much more frequently attended by the members of a rural community than by members of the urban community. Many of the questions, however, would seem to be indications of superior home conditions, whether possessed by the rural, town, or city community. Such questions as "Education of Parents," "Books," "Magazines," "Occupation of the

^a E. L. Thorndike, *Mental and Social Measurements*, 1916

Father," "Automobile," "Telephone," and others are surely significant whenever possessed. Consideration of the questions will convince one that most of the questions are indications of home background whenever possessed, and, more than this, that those that do not have like significance will tend to counterbalance each other in such manner that the total is a significant index. The advantage of the score card is just this fact that the inequalities will neutralize each other so that a high score on the score card indicates favorable home conditions wherever possessed and a low score indicates unfavorable home environment whether found in an urban or a rural community.

There certainly is little doubt as to the influence of the second possibility. There is no evidence that the same forces are causing elimination in the three communities or that these forces, whatever they may be, are of equal strength; and common sense would indicate to the contrary. The attractions of the school, the enforcement of the attendance laws, and the industrial nature of the city population favor the retention of a greater proportion of the school population throughout the elementary school; while the increased age of the city group, they being on the average one year older, and the large proportion of foreigners would tend to make the elimination greater in this group. Elsewhere⁴ the writer has shown that in the smaller communities each succeeding grade after the fifth grade is more intelligent and comes from better homes than the preceding grade. In all probability this selection is more rigid in the rural community. In addition the Negro population, which compares with the slum district of the city group, is not included in the town or rural group.

In the opinion of the writer the city schools most nearly represent the general population of the community in which they are located with the town schools ranking second and the country schools last. To what extent this is true one cannot say, but if it be true a fair sampling from these three communities would vary from the groups we have used as follows: (1) the difference between the city and town group would be less pronounced; (2) the difference between the town and

⁴"The Selected Nature of a Particular School Population" *School Review*, May, 1928

country would be more pronounced; and (3) the difference between the city and country would also be more pronounced.

After taking into consideration the effects of this difference in the selected nature of the three school populations, are there actual differences in the socio-economic status of the communities? For the rural community as compared with both the town and city, the answer is obviously "Yes." The facts and suppositions presented above point toward even more radical differences than those shown. When we consider the town as compared with the city, the question cannot be answered. After accounting for differences in the selected nature of the respective school populations, we do not know whether the average of the city would still be below that of the town or whether it would become equal to or greater than that of the town. The writer is inclined to believe that if we exclude the Negro population there will still be found a slight difference in favor of the town. The existence within the city of very superior advantages for a small group of people and the very noticeable absence in the town of some of the luxuries of the city have a tendency to cause one to forget average conditions. The range of home conditions has been shown to be greater in the city than in the town, but it is well to note that this range is downward as well as upward, some city homes being much superior while others are much inferior to those found in the town. In comparing the two communities there is a tendency to overlook the fact that it is the possession of very superior home conditions by a small minority that gives the city its seeming advantage. The average home in a small town is little different from the average home in the city, but the chances of one's fitting in near this average are greater in the small town.

THE NEGRO PRESS AS A FACTOR IN EDUCATION¹

GLADSTONE H. YEUELL

Although it is not possible to measure the suggestive influence of the press accurately, it is none the less real. Peters, in his *Foundations of Educational Sociology*, says: "The press determines the popular attitude toward moral, social, and industrial questions, putting back of them by way of reinforcement or repression the forces of social suggestion, sympathetic radiation, and imitation. Our moral attitudes, and social and industrial prejudices do not rest to any great extent on instinct. They are caught up from the atmosphere in which we live. Our thinking is whipped into line with that of the group of which we are members. . . . We aspire to dress and recreate ourselves and to think, appreciate, and act like 'everybody' else; and what 'everybody' does we gather largely through the press."

In order to answer the question "Do the readers of Negro papers get incentives therefrom which tend to make their conditions better or worse?" it was determined to analyze the content of certain representative papers with that end in view. Naturally education is defined in terms of Herbert Spencer's "Preparation for complete living."

The method used in analysis was the relative amount of space devoted to different types of news matter. Or, to be more specific, the unit of measure is the column inch. A column inch is an item of news one inch long and the width of a column.

The analysis was limited to the study of three typically representative Negro newspapers; viz., *The New York Age*, *The Pittsburgh Courier*, and *The Chicago Defender*. These are included in Gore's list of twelve leading Negro newspapers, and Gordon's twelve most outstanding papers published by Negroes in this country.

The New York Age was established in 1887. Its editions usually consist of ten pages. According to Ayer and Son's

¹ This article is based upon a study by N. S. Roberts and was presented as an address before the conference on educational sociology at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence, Boston.

American Newspaper Annual and Directory for 1925, it has a circulation of 25,000 and is Republican in politics. It does not generally feature its front page with flashy headings of crime, and has long been noted for its cogent editorials. *The Age* endorsed the policy of the late Booker T. Washington, and is considered a conservative journal.

The Pittsburgh Courier is classed as neither a radical nor a conservative paper. It is hardly ever as militant as *The Chicago Defender*. On the other hand, it is more aggressive than *The New York Age*. Its size varies from sixteen to twenty pages. *The Courier* began publication in 1910. Politically, it is independent. Although it is listed in Ayer's American Newspaper Annual and Directory, no data could be found on its publication. However, copies of it are on sale throughout the South.

The Chicago Defender was established in 1906, and has had a phenomenal growth. In its issue of March 14, 1925, its circulation was given as 247,867. In politics, it is independent. *The Defender* is considered as sensational because it features its front page with large, red headings. It is militant in regard to the ballot, and stands for the enforcement of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments. It supports the policies of W. E. B. DuBois, and holds that since a majority of Negroes have not a free and unrestricted use of the ballot, they have no effective weapon of protest, like the American Federation of Labor, the Farm Bloc, etc.

The following scheme of analysis was devised:

Advertisements (Legitimate). Most of the advertisements of the necessary wants of man come under this class. The assumption is, that if a reader is interested enough in them to invest his money, he has at least an even chance of receiving in return the same pecuniary value or its equivalent. The commodity purchased is thought of in terms of Social Betterment.

Athletics includes amateur, college, and professional baseball, basketball, and football; tennis, automobile racing, prize fighting, and other sports. In this study prize fighting is not thought of as demoralizing. Primarily, horse racing is enter-

taining, and is often referred to as "the sport of kings." Today it is not self-supporting, unless it is associated with some form of betting, either in the form of handbooks, or *parimutuel* machines. Hence horse racing was classed under "Unsavory News."

Culture. In this class of news are placed all news items that pertain to classical music, literature, art, science, invention, the radio, and amateur and professional high-class dramatics.

Economics include all mention of real-estate transactions, labor conditions, banks, insurances, the establishing and encouraging of business enterprises, and special articles on any phase of industry.

Editorials are restricted to the editors' comments on current topics, and editorials reprinted from other journals. The assumption is that editorials in general are constructive and advisory. Since these covered such a wide range of subjects, no attempt was made to further divide and classify them. A study of the classifications of these editorials would have no doubt proved interesting and instructive.

Education includes all articles that pertain to schools, colleges, formal education, some phases of educational legislation, educational endowments, and the like.

Foreign is any piece of news that is not wholly in relation to continental United States.

Health deals with news in regard to the annual observance of National Health Week, articles reprinted from the United States Public Health Service and State Boards of Health bulletins, and health and sanitation items written by physicians in the employ of newspapers, or by readers to the editors.

Interracial Good Will means that type of news that makes for better and more amicable relations and understanding between the two races. Under this heading are included all items that pertain to Annual Race Relations Sunday, at which time pastors of both races are urged to exchange pulpits. This innovation has proven a success in both the North and South, wherever it has been tried. The recent interracial

meetings held throughout the country were included under this heading.

Politics pertain to all news in regard to the ballot, elections, appointments to public offices, and some phases of legislation.

Religion includes church, Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., and all forms of charitable and benevolent activities.

Miscellaneous is composed of items of a trivial nature, writings that are not classed under Culture, cross-word puzzles, recipes, jokes, caricatures, most of the cartoons, and news from the children's columns that could not be consistently classed under some other heading

Personals include notices of births, deaths, marriages, lost relatives, society, lodges, out-of-town news, accidents, and those women's activities that could not be properly classed under Culture, Education, Politics, or Religion.

Theatricals pertain to all affairs of the cursory stage activities, vaudeville, "jazz," cabarets, "blues," and a majority of the phonograph record advertisements. Primarily music is considered as educational, but since the last four items are usually associated with discordant musical tones, they could not be classed otherwise than under Theatricals.

Advertisements (Questionable) are those advertisements that announce the sale of firearms, certain kinds of hair goods and cosmetics that do not make for racial cohesion, "quack" patent medicines, herb treatments, "pep gland," and clairvoyance information.

Crime includes news items pertaining to vice, crime, fights, "moonshine" brawls, and all forms of immorality that involve members of the same race.

Racial Friction refers to illegal discriminations, segregative legislation, lynchings, physical clashes between persons of the two races, and items of similar nature.

Unsavory News is made up of mention of divorces, scandals, gossip, civil suits, and suicides.

The division lines between these classes of news matter could not at all times be rigidly fixed. In seemingly ambiguous cases, the article in question was reread, scrutinized, and finally counted under the classification that seemed to have

more evidence in its favor. Regardless of the minor heading that the item was placed under, in the final analysis, it would fall under its proper classification in one of three large types of news matter. The three types are:

Social Betterment, all news that tends to make men better, morally, socially, physically, religiously, and educationally, or that tends to bring about tolerance, prudence, thrift, and better interracial understandings. Included in this classification are Legitimate Advertisements, Athletics, Culture, Economics, Education, Foreign, Health, Interracial Good Will, Politics, and Religion.

Neutral, news that does not influence society either constructively or destructively. Personals, Miscellaneous, and Theatricals, come under this category. Primarily theatricals are considered as educational, but since most of the theatricals of the present study include vaudeville, "blues," and "jazz," and are amusements pure and simple, they were put under neutral news. The position of "blues" and "jazz" in the musical world has not as yet been definitely decided. Prominent musicians differ on this question. This type of music must not be confused with high-class professional and amateur dramatics and classical musical recitals, subheadings under Culture and Social Betterment.

Antisocial, all news that might afford suggestion to any act that does not make for peace. Questionable Advertisements, Crime, Racial Friction, and Unsavory News, are minor headings under this group classification.

TABLE I

PAPER	TYPE OF MATERIAL	PER CENT OF AMOUNT
New York Age	Social Betterment	65 69
Pittsburgh Courier	Social Betterment	46 20
Chicago Defender	Social Betterment	37 11
New York Age	Neutral	22 97
Pittsburgh Courier	Neutral	33 30
Chicago Defender	Neutral	37 57
New York Age	Antisocial	11 34
Pittsburgh Courier	Antisocial	20 50
Chicago Defender	Antisocial	25.32

Table I shows the results of this analysis on a comparative basis:

In the light of the figures just cited, the central tendency seems to indicate that *The New York Age* ranks first in Social Betterment, and last in both Neutral and Antisocial News. *The Pittsburgh Courier* ranks second in the three large general classes of news matter. *The Chicago Defender* ranks first in the amount of space given to Neutral and Antisocial news, but last in Social Betterment news.

Finally, a comparison of this study was made with a research reported by Delos F. Wilcox, entitled "The American Newspaper, a Study in Social Psychology," *Annals of the American Academy*, vol. 16, pp. 56-92; "A Study of a New York Daily," reported by Byron C. Mathews in *The Independent*, vol. 68, pp. 82-86; and "A Statistical Study of the Contents of Newspapers," reported by Thomas R. Garth in *School and Society*, vol. 3, pp. 140-144. The result of these comparisons showed that the Negro press did not differ materially from the press in general throughout the country except in respect to Business, Finance, Industry, and Economics. This seems to be due to the fact that the negro press carries very little news matter that pertains to stocks and bonds, Wall and LaSalle Streets, the great international markets, the expansion of railroads, the basic industries of coal and iron mining, steel, agriculture, shipbuilding, and the sale and manufacture of automobiles, textiles, leather, and meat products.

CONCLUSIONS

1. The statistical data derived from the classifications of the news matter found in the three papers studied show that 49.67 per cent of the straight reading matter is included under Social Betterment news; 31.28 per cent is classed as Neutral; and 19.05 per cent as Antisocial.

2. When compared with the data derived from similar studies, the final tabulations and classifications of the present study show that the Negro press does not differ materially from the press of the country.

3. Since the reports of the United States Census Bureau, the World Almanac, and the Negro Year Book, show high percentages of illiteracy and educational mortality among Negroes, the press, together with other agencies, must supplement this meager education.

4. The question arises whether the 49.67 per cent of Social Betterment news is fully sufficient to counteract the 19.05 per cent of Antisocial news. Based upon the psychology of suggestion, the ratio 2.6:1 in favor of Social Betterment news seems to indicate that it would.

5. Although the formal education of schools is valuable, it is only a means to an end. This end is an adaptation of the individual to our complex society, and training in the ability to solve the many practical problems of life. If the Negro press aids directly or indirectly in the solution of one of these problems, its mission would not have been in vain.

SUGGESTIONS TOWARDS MEETING SOME SPECIFIC NEEDS IN THE CURRICULA OF ARTS COLLEGES

STEPHEN G. RICH

I

In an earlier article¹ it has been shown by the writer that the problems involved in curriculum making in arts colleges are fundamentally those of providing for the multifarious prevocational needs of young people who are not adequately dealt with under existing curricula. In that article it was stated that, on the basis of the fundamental understanding of the situation, two steps of work are necessary: detailed analysis of the specific needs of specific groups within the college, and experimental studies on the means for meeting these needs most effectively.

In this article it is proposed to begin such an analysis and to arrive at suggestions which may be made the basis of experimental studies. It is further proposed to carry the analysis sufficiently far to enable future experimental students to approach the detailed problems free of certain confusions that appear hitherto to have stood in the way of adequate understanding of the problems involved.

Our analyses must begin with a survey of the personnel to be served by the colleges and the services to be rendered by the colleges to this personnel. The outstanding characteristic of the college entrants, as a body, in their heterogeneity. They range between those with established purposes and those without purpose; those with fine cultural backgrounds and those with none at all; and so forth through many categories.

A certain proportion of the entrants is definitely headed for particular professions. One group, hardly recognized by college authorities, is definitely aiming to become educators. Its members mainly aim to become college teachers; but the great majority of them actually go into the high schools, where they furnish the supervisory and administrative staff, after some teaching experience, as well as the teachers. Another group is definitely headed for commercial or indus-

¹ *Journal of Educational Sociology*, I, 5, 282

trial life. Still another aims at medicine; similar groups aim at law, the ministry, chemistry, etc.

For these groups we need, not one curriculum, but several curricula. The requirements in the way of preprofessional knowledge and training are so different for these various professions that any common curriculum is necessarily wasteful of time for all. But, in particular, a grave error will be committed if we merely lump together all commercial pursuits under the title of "commerce." Between the aspirant for managerial or executive work, the budding salesman, and the technical expert on accountancy, lie gulfs at least as great as those between the future teacher and the future medico.

In contrast to these definite-minded groups are those who have simply "come to college." Some, indeed, have general intellectual interests, and will take readily to the study of whatever subjects are well presented to them. The overwhelming majority, however, consists of young persons who simply have not yet found the vocation that attracts them. What becomes of them is perfectly well known. The men become in part high-school teachers; the remainder of them find their way into various commercial vocations, apparently mostly on the "selling end." A small portion of this group decides definitely on a profession while in college. Among the women, it would appear that teaching claims a large proportion of them for a short time; commercial life, as stenographers, appears to claim a few; but, in the main, their immediate vocations are merely stop-gaps until marriage.

With this heterogeneous mass of entrants to handle, the arts college must necessarily have many curricula. The question of a "common core" for these many curricula has been debated considerably and with much vehemence. Columbia College has its famous course in Contemporary Civilization, in which every freshman is taken upon a high hill and shown all the kingdoms of the earth. Many colleges still adhere to required composition in the freshman year and to required English literature for sophomores. The net outcome of all attempts to date is that no satisfactory common core has been found. Sociologically, it seems likely that no common core ever will be found—simply because the entrants are so hetero-

geneous, and their professional aims or lack of aim provide a further heterogeneity of conditions to be met.

Our friends, the educational psychologists, have not yet been heard from on the question of freshman composition; hence we do not know whether or not it is effective. Our friends who teach it, are, however, unanimous in agreeing that it is effective in bringing despair to the teacher: despair, fatigue, and a conviction that the freshmen have entered without even the rudiments of eighth-grade attainment in theme writing. From the viewpoint of educational sociology, with the results of freshman themes so wholly in doubt, a definite suggestion may be in order:

(1) No theme writing during the freshman year.

(2) During the sophomore year, when the half-remembered precepts of high-school teachers of composition have been forgotten, two separate semesters of work:

First semester: For those already definitely aimed at medicine, law, chemistry, and teaching, a course in "technical writing." That is, a course in writing effective reports, briefs, and the like, on such semiprofessional subjects as they already are likely to know about. This would be a beginning course in such work. For those not already decided, and for those aiming at commercial pursuits of all sorts, a course in "business English," with the business letter in its host of forms as the core of the work may well be in order.

Second semester: Separate courses for these same two groups, on technical points of good writing. This means courses in rationalized punctuation (punctuation taught so that the student sees why each item is used); rationalized grammar; and especially "effective turns of phrasing." Since the needs would not be the same for the two groups from the first semester, the groups will need separate but parallel courses.

This program is an attempt to treat theme writing as a pre-vocational or vocational subject, rather than as a phase of social communication. No teacher will be able to prevent the social communication element, without reference to vocation, from creeping in; hence we need not fear the loss of part of the incidental service of the college.

Sociologically and psychologically, such a sophomore program of composition has much to commend it. It comes after the students have had time to become adjusted to college, and when they have forgotten the pride in passing the entrance requirements in English. It comes when an increased number have attained definite vocational aims, and when all have far more to write about than has a freshman just transplanted from high school. It supplies both a need and a need that is conscious.

Our sociological point of view may further be applied in order to discover possibilities for the freshman year in place of the not-lamented freshman theme course. Since the freshmen are a newly transplanted group, cut loose from old attachments to some degree, and forming new ones very markedly, there is a legitimate field for the English department to use advantageously. This is an occasion upon which *extensive* reading, of varied nature, is in order. Doubtless some will here expect a suggestion for a course in "contemporary literature." That is exactly what the sociological point of view leads us to discard. Likewise, we must discard the traditional course in English literature, beginning with the Venerable Bede and ending with Tennyson, or that in American literature beginning with John Smith or Cotton Mather. Any chronological course, involving much acquiring of information about the history of literature, is entirely irrelevant to the social situation of the freshman group. The suggestion is made that a course should be offered in which each student should be got to read a dozen to fifteen books, none of which are used directly or for reference in any other course which he is taking. It seems sociologically sound to allow half these books to be in any one field except fiction, and to insist that the other half be scattered through as many fields as possible, including perhaps one standard novel and a collection of accepted short stories. For example, a prospective teacher of biological sciences might choose Huxley's *The Crayfish* (a model of beautiful English style), J. Arthur Thomson's *The Biology of the Seasons*, Dr. Herter's *Biological Aspects of Human Problems*, and three other biological books of equal stylistic merit; these form the field of major

interest. Beyond these he might read one of O. W. Holmes's "medicated" novels, which are fiction but with a biological twist; a volume of Kipling's verse; Herbert Spencer's *Education*; some classic of chemistry; and certainly some philosophical work not too heavy.

The men directing such courses would need to be widely informed on the stylistic merits of the works in various fields, and would need to be able to direct students to the desirable reading. What type of reports on reading—if any—and how the course should be conducted are purely technical problems not here in point.²

Personally, the writer would go further, and allow a freshman interested in modern drama to take that as a major field for reading; or would allow one who cared for modern poetry to read in that field as part of the course. The purpose of the course is essentially to form the habit of reading extensively, both in the field of main interests and elsewhere. This is directly in line with the professional purpose and incidental other purposes of the arts college. With the instructing staff guiding as to choice of books stylistically good, an appreciation of good language may be started.

II

In the preceding section we have applied the methods of educational sociology to the problem of the English curriculum for the first two years of college. A similar application, with probably similar unorthodox recommendations, could be made in other fields; but it is too lengthy a task to be done within the confines of this article. Therefore various suggestions which have come into the writer's mind from this point of view must suffice as stepping-stones to further problems.

Sociologically, it is probably professionally useful in almost every line to acquire a reading knowledge, and only a reading knowledge, but a good reading knowledge, of some language which is extensively relevant. The chemist, of course, can use German; probably the future merchant will find more use for that language than for any other; the teacher of any lit-

² The writer is indebted to Mr. H. S. Robinson for the suggestion to have freshman reading and sophomore composition.

erary subject will find French most valuable; and so forth. Intensive courses, aiming solely at *the ability to read the languages fluently and without distress*, might well be offered in some three or four languages of vocational use, and freshmen expected to take one of these. The unfortunate ones who came to college without the language they need could have a two years' intensive course leading to this same goal. A course in mathematical analysis, such as is now offered in a number of colleges, applying mathematical methods to prevocational interests of various sorts, and required for some students but elective for others, would seem justified. Certainly those who need further mathematics for vocational use will be advantageously affected by this course, bridging the gap from high-school algebra and geometry to all advanced mathematics. The writer is entirely at sea as to desirable work in the social sciences; but the complexity of any save history probably renders it advantageous to postpone them into the junior and senior years.

Not strictly sociological, yet social in its implications of avoiding waste, is the following general suggestion. Such courses as freshman chemistry, which would certainly be retained for future chemists, science teachers, etc., under any scheme, could be improved markedly by classifying the students on a new basis. Instead of having "beginning" and "advanced" groups on the basis of whether the pupils had or had not high-school work (entrance credit) in the subject, give some good test of achievement at the start of the year, and section on the basis of those test results.

III

The prevocational purpose in arts-college educations renders necessary a sociological reclassification of the courses given, cutting across departmental and subject lines. A convenient place to begin this is in considering the work of the customary departments of English and of public speaking. The department of English, in well-developed colleges, offers a group of courses dealing with the technique and practice of writing English; these are often further divided into a small group on the theory of using the language and a larger one on

the practice thereof. Opposed to these are a series of courses in which sections of the literature are intensively or extensively read. Nearly every college has a further course, a history of English literature. The department of public speaking will usually offer courses in the practice of using English orally; in content these may overlap some from the department of English.

From the point of view of the type of vocation served, these courses need to be considered in four groups:

(1) Those that contribute primarily towards expression or social communication; the composition and rhetoric courses and those in public speaking.

(2) Those that contribute towards knowledge of English literature.

(3) Those that are a branch of history.

(4) Those that belong to the science of linguistics.

The courses in group 1 will include some that are of direct professional use in many different lines, and many that are really of comparatively little professional use to the teacher of English literature. When, therefore, we consider curriculum making for the approaches to the various professions, we must classify these entirely separately and consider them in a different relation from what we do with the courses in the other groups. Group 3, which usually means two courses on the history of English and American literatures, must be considered as belonging essentially to the histories of those nations, and relevant to whatever vocations there are that utilize history as part of their informational basis. No explanation is needed for groups 2 and 4.

A step beyond this point in our analysis lies in applying this division to courses given by other departments. The department of French in a certain college, not very large, now gives courses that would fall into the same four groups, although groups 3 and 4 have only one course each. For sociological consideration, the English and the French courses in group 4 belong together, as contributing towards the same professional purpose. In a similar way we may allot the courses in various languages into their sociological groups.

A different classification, but similar in methods and purposes, applies to physics and mathematics. Actually, much work in physics in the colleges is really a branch of mathematical activity. Certain mathematical activities, such as statistics, belong within the fields of biology, education, and economics, rather than in the central physics-mathematics unit. Two colleges are now giving courses in the history of mathematics, in the mathematics department; but their usefulness is at least in large part in the department of history.

We have, again, in the fields of social sciences, a still different division of purposes. The course in American Government, often given as a senior course, is essentially a vocational course, aiming to orient the citizen, and contributing directly to his vocational efficiency because of the understanding it gives him of the means of social control that act upon him and on which he may act. Also, it recapitulates and makes clear what civic training has been had and forgotten in the lower schools—provided it is well taught. The first part of this statement applies with perhaps equal force to economics in its first course; and the strictly vocational applicability of certain advanced courses in economics is too obvious for future merchants to need more than mention. Certain of the advanced courses in political science are again of limited and special usefulness. In economics, the same holds true.

All this analysis leads us to the result of stating that for curriculum making in colleges the type of training and point of view of the courses considered, rather than their names, must guide us. We have no justification for saying that some one vocation "requires English"; we may with propriety say that it "calls for training in social communication" when courses leading that way, from whatever department taken, are relevant. Likewise, we may say that a future teacher of high-school history might have little occasion to take certain courses given under the label of "history," but would probably be professionally benefited by those labeled "History of Education," "History of French Literature," "History of Arithmetic," and the like.

We can, therefore, make our various curricula in the arts college, with a considerable degree of accurate direction of

effort, by considering the courses on the basis of the type of training and information that they give. We shall, of course, find certain courses that provide training or information contributory to many different types of profession. It is highly probable that economics and government, in at least the introductory courses, will be professional and useful for nearly all purposes. The differentiation of early courses for training in the definite preprofessional needs of the various types of vocations, as occurring in the fields of communication and of knowledge of literature, has been treated in detail in the preceding section.

In the premedical course, where the known requirements of medical colleges for admission, based upon what is probably the best sociological survey of requirements as yet made anywhere in the field of higher education, set the standard and fill up all the available teaching hours in college. In the other professions, the preprofessional or early professional studies do not as yet fill up the whole time of the college student. Here, in using "free electives" and in touching upon various fields, points of view, and purposes, the college can do its accessory work and furnish what the defenders of particular subjects as essential for all call "culture." Further recognition must be made of the fact that occasionally subjects must be taken in order to qualify for the official licenses to practice the profession, regardless of their actual relevance to professional work. A type specimen of this is the requirement of history of education for teachers' certificates. For the teacher of history it is a useful part of his professional work; but it has not yet been shown to do any positive work for teachers in other subjects.

SOCIAL ASPECTS OF EQUAL PAY FOR MEN AND WOMEN IN TEACHING

HERBERT A. TONNE

In recent years there has been quite some discussion in regard to the equalization of pay for men and women teachers of the same rank. Burgess in his *Trends of School Costs* has incidentally given us some very enlightening material on the situation for the past seventy-five years. In comparing the average salaries of men teachers in cities, women teachers in cities, men teachers in rural sections, and women teachers in rural sections from 1841 to 1920, he found that "the salaries of city men teachers started at a level nearly five times as high as any of the other groups. The salaries of city women teachers started lower than those of men in rural schools, but passed the men in the course of a very few years and continued to gain thereafter more rapidly. The trend for rural women teachers is considerably below all the others.

. . . The final salaries of men is only about three times their initial salary, while the general level of the salaries of country women teachers at the close of eighty years is about eight times the early figure."¹

In summing up his discussion of the subject Burgess finds that "In similar communities men have been paid more than women teachers. . . . The salaries of women teachers have been gaining on those of men teachers. . . . Women country teachers have had the largest percentage increase in salary, and city men teachers the smallest."²

Men teachers have, therefore, relatively been gradually placed at a considerable disadvantage in comparison with their position in earlier days. This, too, in spite of the fact that in the Civil War period many more of the men were teaching in the elementary schools while now by far the larger majority teach in high schools. As might be expected in the light of this situation the "percentage of men teachers in the schools of the country has fallen from 43 per cent in 1880 to 16 per cent in 1918."³

¹ W. Randolph Burgess, *Trends of School Costs*, Department of Education, Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1920, p. 40

² *Ibid*, p. 45

³ *Ibid*, p. 43

How can we account for these facts? No doubt one of the major factors in causing this tendency toward equalization is the comparatively greater preparation received by women for teaching in recent years. Though there is quite some difference of opinion as to the causes for prices (and we are here considering the price of teaching) it is generally agreed that cost is a major factor in deciding price. It is quite logical then that there should be a proportionately greater price paid for the services of women teachers, if their training relative to the training of men is also greater than the training of men.

Another powerful influencing factor no doubt is the far greater opportunity now open for women in industry. The school has always been in competition with commerce and industry for the services of men. In the period before the Civil War and possibly to a lesser extent after that, commercial work was practically closed for certain types of women. Those therefore who were compelled to find gainful employment were forced into teaching. This gave such a large supply of material for teaching as compared to the demand that there naturally was a very low wage level for women teachers.

The doctrine of equal rights which has gradually been developing in our social philosophies also has probably been a strong element in causing a tendency toward more equal pay for equal work. Woman suffrage, women on school committees, and on boards of education, the achievements of women in science and in literature have all been influential in creating an attitude of fair play. This has manifested itself, of course, more strongly in those fields where women always have been important, such as teaching.

Before going on to a more detailed discussion of the situation as it is at present let us consider the arguments generally offered on both sides of the question. The usual argument offered by those who favor a higher salary for men regardless of the type of work performed is that men usually will require a higher economic stipend because they normally have or at any rate will have a family to support. Those opposed to this position can point out, of course, that some women also have dependents for whom they might also demand a greater wage. This does not, however, take away from the

general import of the argument. From one point of view, and the traditional one at that, the man is justified in receiving a higher wage in order to make possible the maintenance of a family. Several European countries have made provision for this situation and give extra percentages to state employees for the support of their families. Upon casual study, these extra amounts appear to be more or less equal to the larger wages usually received by men in teaching, but a scientific study of this would be very enlightening.

The opponents to this attitude will not and possibly cannot because of their economic situation see the partial justice of the previous argument. The cry is that of equal pay for equal services. Certainly every fair-minded person agrees to that slogan as it stands. In industry there is no question as to whether a person has only himself or a family of a dozen. The almost universal tendency is to give the same pay for equal services, other things, that is, supply and demand, being constant.

This latter viewpoint seems to be making the most headway by far. Many of the larger cities, among them those having the highest salary schedules, give equal pay to men and women of equal rank, training, and experience. Some of the states have even required equal salary schedules for men and women. One state put through legislation to the effect that in all future salary schedules made and in future changes of salary schedules for teachers there must be provision made for equalization. Thereby very much needed pay increases are being held up in some cities because it is felt that to raise the salaries of women to those of men, and then put through a general raise would be too much for the tax payers to tolerate at one time.

Corollary to this new legislation, though not directly within the scope of the present discussion, is the tendency of these more progressive cities to lift the ban upon teaching by married women. Until very recently it was the almost universal rule that married women would not be employed as teachers. In many of the more conservative communities of the country this ruling is still enforced. It is still only the rare university or college which will permit a woman member on its staff whose husband is a fellow member of the faculty

The tendency toward salary equalization has come not without much protest, of course, from those concerned. The following, issued by the *Schoolmen of Kansas City* is typical:

"Equal pay for equal service" is the slogan of women teachers in high schools who contend that the board of education discriminates against them because of their sex. By implication they demand a proportionate representation of schedule and in administrative positions.

The ultimate result of the adoption of such a policy is the domination of secondary-school education by women and a further reduction of the already inadequate number of young men who choose teaching as a life work.⁴

It will be noticed that the schoolmen not only demand a differential salary schedule, but also admit that more of the administrative positions go to men. This is probably true even in communities where there has been an equalization in pay. Men still have somewhat the advantage in that other things being equal higher positions more often go to men than to women even though they are far fewer in number on the teaching staffs than women.

Be the arguments and biases what they may be, the fact is that by and large the services of teachers as well as those of other workers are determined by supply and demand. And moreover this supply and demand works not only in the profession itself, but exists also between teaching and other types of work. Thus if the demand for teachers in general is low and the supply high, the wages for teachers in the long run will tend to be lowered. At the same time other types of work will be in competition with teaching for the services of men and women, and as the salaries of teaching become lower, more and more individuals will go into other paths of endeavor where the demand for their services is higher. There is a final factor still to be considered and that is the type of services obtained for various scales of services. Over extended periods of time if wages in a given profession are reduced, the supply of workers may still remain high but the type of person going into this form of work will tend to be of a distinctly lower quality. This is true also in teaching. If the wages of teachers go up in comparison to those of other workers a higher type of person will go into teaching. If

⁴"Equal Pay for Equal Services," *School and Society*, 22, 596-7, November 7, 1925

the wages of teachers go down comparatively there will be a gradual weakening in the caliber of the profession.

Whatever the cause or causes may be, whether it be mere tradition and convention, greater ability, or pure competition with other types of work, men teachers of ability equal to that of a given level of women teachers command a higher salary than women teachers do. The tendency to make the wages of women more equal to those of men in the last fifty years has to a great extent depleted the school systems of their men teaching forces. In regard to the relative quality of men teachers at present and men teachers in the past, and the quality of men teachers and of women teachers at present no definite study has been made. The implication seems clear, however. The fact is, then, that if we wish to have a fair proportion of men in our school systems of a type equal to that of the women in our schools, we must at present and probably will have to for some time to come pay our men teachers higher salaries than our women teachers.

We may, of course, reconcile ourselves to the gradual feminization of our school systems or the weakening of the caliber of our men teachers or both. The limits of the present discussion do not allow an extended inquiry into the possible desirableness of such a condition. Let us, however, to be brief, use the Kantian scheme of extending the condition universally, though admittedly this method of drawing conclusions is not without its weaknesses. Suppose that our school system became universally manned by women. Let us presume our entire public-school system in command of women with a few low-typed men for certain types of work, where they were necessary! Probably even the most ardent advocate of equal pay for equal work will recoil from such a position. The situation is well summed up by Walter R. Smith:

This progressive feminization has led to a number of weaknesses in our educational systems, as compared with those of other nations and ages, but we are concerned here only with its effect upon professionalization. In every line of professional advance the enormous preponderance of women teachers is a hindrance. In the first place, many of them are unwilling to undergo the amount of technical preparation necessary for real professional work. Such unwillingness comes, not from lesser ambition or ability, but from the very nature of the social position in which

woman finds herself at this age. She expects and is expected to marry and become a homemaker, which she usually does, thus rendering any extended technical preparation for teaching unprofitable. In the second place, women can accept smaller pay than is necessary to attract men into the profession. . . . Altogether, without the least insinuation against the motives of women in entering teaching, or minimizing in the remotest degree the vast contribution they have made, and are making to educational advancement, it may be stated as a fundamental fact that teaching can never become a profession with the social standing and rewards of the other professions until the number of men engaged in it is approximately as large as the number of women.⁵

The situation is then, that though there has been a general tendency in our economic system as a whole to equalize the salaries for men and women for equal types of work, there has been a much more rapid tendency toward this condition in the teaching profession. This has had a derogatory effect on the profession because in view of the disadvantageous position of men in the field they have tended to go into other fields of work where there is far less of a tendency toward pay equalization.

As our social and especially the marital and family relations between men and women take on the aspects of the type of civilization we are evidently headed for, there will be more and more of a tendency for women to receive salaries as high as those of men, until when the process of transition has been completed they will have reached a uniform basis. This process of transition is taking place very slowly in comparison to the lifetimes of individuals and will probably continue to go on slowly. To the extent to which our entire economic system goes in this direction teaching salaries also should and will tend to the same conclusion. For the teaching profession to attempt to act too much in the rôle of a telic example of our changing social relationships will, however, have a harmful influence directly upon the character of our teaching personnel and thereby upon society as a whole. The conclusion of this discussion then is that whatever the general scale of teachers' salaries as a whole is, there should be such a differential in the salaries of men and women as will maintain approximately an equal number of both sexes of like character and training in the teaching profession.

⁵ Walter Robinson Smith, *An Introduction to Educational Sociology*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1917.

INQUIRY

1. *In specific terms just what is meant by education?*

The answer to this question will undoubtedly provoke much disagreement. There is, however, need for an attempt to forsake the many abstractions which have been philosophically utilized in defining education. It would seem that the results of education can be summarized in terms of life plus those achievements which give social as well as individual satisfaction. What else can education accomplish?

The products of education seem to be realized only through an adequate adaptation to environment both material and social. This adaptation is necessarily a continuous process because of constantly changing conditions of living. The term "adaptation" as here used signifies a relative accomplishment whereby health can be maintained on the highest efficiency level. This necessarily infers the avoidance of disease, and accident prevention. One, therefore, through education learns how to live up to his maximum capacity.

By education, then, one becomes able to maintain health according to the degree of his adaptation; and through health physically, mentally, occupationally and in the home and community, all other objectives are realized. Through education individuals and groups (1) are properly fed; (2) are provided with proper shelter, clothing, and sanitation; (3) acquire suitable living habits and practices; (4) learn to improve their environment, and coöperate rather than clash with it; (5) become immunized as far as possible against disease; and (6) give greater attention to physical needs. All the objectives of education as usually listed seem to be attained in the realization of these six achievements.

2. *What Type Activities Reflect Changing Conceptions of Education?*

Experimentation. Perhaps one of the signs most indicative of change and growth in educational policies is the rapidly changing attitude favorable to experimentation. Often an entire school is placed on an experimental basis. Individual

classes or groups are organized in many school systems for the purpose of weighing the old and new practices and of determining their relative educational value in education for today.

Course of Study. A second activity giving evidence of educational advancement has been the almost universal attitude for curriculum reconstruction. Every compartment of the curriculum is undergoing change. The writing of a course of study was considered as an achievement useful at least over a period of years. Today it is an instrument in education constantly in the process of modification and growth. Much material has been dropped as entirely useless in educational attainment. On the other hand much new subject matter is being selected in place of the old. Subject matter, such as in handwriting, is being entirely remodeled. Educators everywhere are thinking in terms of the effect of subject matter on the individual. They insist that content should increase efficiency—physical, cultural, civic, æsthetic, occupational, moral, and religious

School and Class Organization and Management. A third activity reflects the conception of the school apart from subject matter as a socializing factor in education. The building and its equipment suggest the function for which the school as a whole is organized. Typically school facilities may suggest that the school is to serve the community only as a means of an economic assimilation of traditions, or it may suggest the apparent need for the development of new social patterns and for social production. Modern educational activities emphasize a due recognition of individual differences to the end that each and every child may be equitably adapted to his physical and social environment. The serious handicap to rational educational adaptation, economically considered, is the need for research particularly in the field of school and class organization in order to avoid many of the trial and error activities now being utilized. We need to know precisely what school and class organization serves best the function of the school today

Teaching Methods. Probably no phase of school work is being revolutionized or changed more than that of method.

This is as it should be if the school is to be life and aim to improve life rather than serve as a preparation for life. The teacher in order to adapt methods adequately needs above all to appreciate life and its needs now and anticipate the new problems which the child is likely to face in future years. The newer methods are making possible the acquisition of real experience in the classroom and for the adaptation of the child in his various social relationships. They are teaching the child how to play and how to achieve.

Health and Safety Education. The felt need for education in health and safety has been a potent factor in changing not only content, organization, and method in education, but in causing educators to proceed on the assumption that education means a development of proper habits, practices, attitudes, and ideals. Health and safety education does not involve the introduction of a new subject. Health is not a subject; it is an ideal to which all subjects and activities should contribute.

Measurement. The newer conceptions of education are revealed by the changing attitudes toward measurement in education. The psychological movement has given us an excellent technique for educational measurement. Now we are interested in applying this technique to the end that it may be determined just how our conventional school subjects, our school and class organization, and our methods do affect individual and social behavior. Activities in measurement just for a time at least may be confined to a study of these problems.

Additional Activities. Other miscellaneous activities have developed through the feeling of social need. Special classes and schools are being organized for the physically and mentally handicapped and for the mentally superior; we have vocational guidance and vocational education; trade schools are established; and we aim to promote better home-school relationships, better coöperation, and to advance the movement for thrift education.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

EDITORIAL NOTE: *It is designed to make this department a clearing house for (1) information about current research projects of interest in educational sociology and (2) ideas with reference to research methods and techniques in this field. Readers are urged to report projects and suggestions as to methods of research. This department desires to encourage and stimulate cooperation in research.*

A New Research Manual for the Study of Local Groups and Communities

*Field Studies in Sociology: A Student's Manual*¹ is the name of a new book by Vivian M. Palmer, Supervisor, Local Community Research, University of Chicago, which is soon to be forthcoming. This volume is the result of four years of experimentation in the Social Research Laboratory of the University of Chicago. It contains three parts: Part One is a discussion of sociology as a science; of the methods of sociological research (case-study method, historical method, and statistical method); and of the basic theoretical assumptions of sociology which are selected as a basis for study.

Part Two presents three outlines of type studies: the type study of a territorial group; the type study of an interest group; and the type study of an accommodation group. Each of these type studies contains a set of problem sheets, keyed to all the introductory texts in sociology, and to Part Three of the volume which deals with techniques of investigation. The type studies have been developed through students' concrete study of hundreds of cases of each kind of group.

The third part presents a discussion of objectives and practice of techniques of investigation: observation, interview, map making, diary recording, documentation, and case analysis.

There is an appendix in which examples of students' studies, maps, and forms used in research are presented.

The volume is designated as an introductory manual for sociological research, to function much as a laboratory manual does in physics or chemistry, and should be used as the text for a course in investigation to follow the introductory course in sociology. Its chief value lies in the fact that it has grown

¹ To be published by the University of Chicago Press about the middle of October, 1928

out of the pooling of the experiences of over a thousand undergraduate and graduate students and twenty-five staff and research assistants who have directed their work. The students under supervision have been given individual attention, and a careful study made of their problem in making the field studies.

A New "Case Book" on Scientific Methods in Social Science.

Another publication to which sociologists are looking forward with great interest is the new volume now in preparation which will be an exhibit of methods actually used in making outstanding contributions in the field of social science.

From sixty to eighty inductive analyses of the methods employed by the authors of outstanding contributions to social science are being assembled for the so-called "case book" projected by the Committee on Scientific Method of the Social Science Research Council. Each of these is being prepared by a competent scholar who has specialized in the field of inquiry represented. The committee consists of:

Walter W. Cook of Yale University
A. N. Holcombe of Harvard University
W. I. King of New York University
Edward Sapir of the University of Chicago
Horace Secrist of Northwestern University
Frederick J. Teggert of the University of California
L. L. Thurstone of the University of Chicago
Mary van Kleeck of the Russell Sage Foundation
Robert M. MacIver of Columbia University, Chairman

Stuart A. Rice of the University of Pennsylvania is in the committee's service as investigator, and during a portion of the year has been associated with Harold D. Lasswell of the University of Chicago as co-investigator.

Research Conference of the Religious Education Association.

On September 14, 15, and 16, the Research Committee of the Religious Education Association was host to a conference of research workers who are engaged upon the problems bearing upon character formation. The meeting was held at the Chicago Theological Seminary which granted the use of its facilities for the conference.

The Research Committee of the Religious Education Association was organized two years ago to coordinate and promote research in religious and character education. It has

made a survey of the research work now being done in the immediate field and has provided a day for reports on research in connection with the annual convention of the Religious Education Association.

The conference was limited to twenty-five research workers carefully selected as representing different fields. Among those present were: E. L. Thorndyke, Ellsworth Faris, Arthur E. Holt, chairman of the committee, J. M. Artman, W. C. Bower, Ruth S. Cavan, Galen M. Fisher, Hugh Harts-horne, Mark A. May, Edwin B. Starbuck, A. L. Swift, Goodwin B. Watson, John J. B. Morgan, and Frederic M. Thrasher. The fields of psychology and education, psychiatry, religion, religious education, sociology, and survey methods were represented.

The conference was called because the Committee felt that a very great need exists for a more cooperative attack upon "character process" in the various related fields of research and by various techniques. It was fundamentally a discussion which resulted in the trading of experiences and the debating of methods and the various members presented pertinent and concrete researches which they had under way or had completed. The conference was guided by a steering committee, which used as a basis for its work statements of the problems which those attending considered relative and the points which they considered valuable for debate.

Among the expected outcomes of the conference are more complete fellowship between the workers in related fields of research affecting character and behavior problems; a determination of points for research workers urgently needed and some suggestions for furthering it; an estimate by the group as to the value of such a conference as an annual event; and finally the formulation of plans for future meetings. The definite outcomes of the conference will be more fully reported in a later issue of *THE JOURNAL*.

The Journal of Juvenile Research

Beginning with the fall number for 1928, the *Journal of Delinquency* published by the Department of Research of the Whittier State School, Whittier, California, will be known as the *Journal of Juvenile Research* to put it in line with modern attitudes toward the socially maladjusted child.

BOOK REVIEWS

Safety Education in the Vocational School, by MAX S. HENIG. New York: National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters, 1928, vi + 110 pages.

This publication is devoted entirely to safety education in the vocational school and suggests in detail how instruction should be divided between the shop and the classroom in order to reduce the number of accidents not only during the vocational course, but during the vocational lives of the students. This study in safety education contributes to all phases of educational work and applies with equal force to the necessary reconstruction of the curriculum in general education. "The objective of the study was to construct a curriculum for use in the academic department that would produce, as a primary result, a substantial reduction of the hazards and the mishaps, . . . that would encourage the formation of habits, the acquisition of knowledges, and the development of attitudes and ideals which would function to keep the school's graduates safe while engaged in the industries for which they have been fitted," and to enable them to further the progress of the industrial safety movement. This should be the objective of every school curriculum; and a curriculum can be justified only to the extent that it does actually perform these functions and develops abilities to survive and to live more happily and efficiently.

Dr. Henig demonstrates (1) that the great majority of industrial and vocational school accidents are avoidable through education; (2) that individuals can be trained to become safe workers; (3) that instruction can provide for immediate and future needs, and can impart those knowledges, skills, habits, and attitudes that will make for safe workers; (5) that the school can function to prepare the student as a result of instruction in accident prevention, to take his place in industry able to discover and avoid its hazards, willing and also able to cooperate with and further the movement for industrial safety as he meets it; and (6) that instruction of this character should be offered both in the classroom and on the job.

This curriculum, embodying as it does the fundamental principles of dynamic education, is adaptable to all school situations. It illustrates the true function of the school, the only institution by virtue of its relation to the whole community which can carry out a program that will function in the establishment of safety habits and practices. The principles embodied in this study are applicable to all phases of education, not only in the closely allied field of education in health, but to every subject and to every activity of the school curriculum.

IRA M. GAST

Immigration Restriction, by ROY L. GARIS. New York: Macmillan Company, 1927, xv + 376 pages.

Particularly timely for the student of immigration and related problems is the recent volume on *Immigration Restriction* by Professor Roy L. Garis. The purpose of the book is to portray the history of immigration from the standpoint of regulation and restriction and quite naturally deals in large

part with the growth and force of public opinion on the subject, the culmination of which is apparent in the drastic regulation of today. Although admittedly a firm believer in restriction the author treats his subject from a thoroughly impartial viewpoint, not attempting to weigh the merits or demerits of restriction *vs.* nonrestriction so much as to portray the grounds on which the arguments of those advocating such policies rest.

Of special note is the evidence presented to show that the threads of opposition to immigration trace directly back to early colonial days. Indeed, the very immigrant stock which is now favored was in those early times the butt of vigorous attacks and discriminations. The Dutch, Scandinavians, Swiss, French, and later the Germans and Irish were alike unwanted despite the fact that the crying need of the young nation was manpower to develop its resources. George Washington expressed himself forcefully on the question: "I have no intention to invite immigrants, even if there are no restrictive acts against it. I am opposed to it altogether." John Adams and Benjamin Franklin held similar views and Thomas Jefferson, particularly hostile to immigration, queried "whether it is desirable for us to receive the dissolute and demoralized handicraftsmen of the old cities of Europe."

Although rather technical in nature *Immigration Restriction* will indeed prove a valuable reference work for the student interested in immigration and its control.

EARL E. MUNTZ

Folk Beliefs of the Southern Negro, by N. N. PUCKETT.
Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1926,
xiv + 644 pages.

Intensely interesting to the lay reader, and at the same time a most thorough piece of research dealing with the folk thought and beliefs of a significant portion of our population, is the best way to describe Professor N. N. Puckett's *Folk Beliefs of the Southern Negro*. Dr. Puckett lays a solid foundation for this work by a critical study of the practical and emotional background of the American Negro. The colored man brought to America a galaxy of primitive notions and beliefs which were soon to fuse with many derived directly from the white man's culture of a century or more ago.

During slave days voodooism and conjuration were on the decline and it is possible that this relic of African life would have ultimately died out of its own accord. The slave was a valuable piece of property, and health meant greater value. Therefore the master protected the slave against disease germs and bodily injuries—there was no place for magical cures in the system. But after the Civil War when the treatment of disease was again given to the Negroes they focused their attention on the all powerful "root doctor" or "hoodoo man" as the healer of diseases. The Negroes have a very real belief in fetishism, and place the greatest faith in these professional trick doctors who abound to this day in Virginia, Mississippi, Alabama, Louisiana, and elsewhere in the South as well as in the northern cities. The credulity of the rank and file is so great that it is extremely

hard to get a Negro to testify in court against a "hoodoo doctor" no matter how much he has been swindled.

There is an excellent treatment of Negro folk medicine through positive control signs and cures, as well as negative control signs or taboos. Dr. Puckett calls attention, however, to the fact that the most widespread beliefs among the American Negroes today seem to be those which formerly had a wide distribution in Europe or in Africa. The male clings to the old African forms, probably because of the greater fear and respect which they command, his desire to be spectacular, and also by reason of his relative lack of contact with European lore. Negro women were brought into contact with Anglo-Saxon women and beliefs were spread from the susceptible to the susceptible while the Negro man was associated more with the white man where neither pupil nor teacher was as much given to superstitious thought. Thus it is that the Negress in her constant association with children has become the principal custodian and sower of false generalizations.

"Religion among the Southern Negroes," says the author, "is so full of what the whites call superstition that it would be impossible to disentangle the two did we not have our present concept of Christianity as a standard." It is of great value to note the exact nature of this intermingling of African beliefs, European folklore and Christianity, together with some unique interpretations which the Negroes themselves have developed in America.

Sociologist and educator alike must owe a lasting debt of gratitude to Dr. Puckett for this timely and scholarly volume on the folk beliefs of the American Negro.

EARL E. MUNTZ

The Folk High Schools of Denmark and the Development of a Farming Community, by HOLGER BEGTRUP, HANS LUND and PETER MAMICHE, with an introduction by Sir Michael Sadler. Oxford University Press, 1926. 158 pages.

In America, nearly every native-born adult has been promoted step by step through a graded elementary school. If he continued his education further, he was promoted unit by unit through the high school. If he went on to college, he completed his freshman prescriptions before he could be rated as a sophomore. It is almost impossible for us to face frankly and open-mindedly the likelihood that one who should plunge into an education at eighteen or twenty years of age with no previous school learning except a brief elementary training in childhood might be far more effectively educated in five or ten months than many, perhaps most, of our college graduates.

When we read that such an education is gained without examinations, without textbooks or notebooks, without any of the solemn academic nonsense with which we surround our schools and colleges, then we feel that all our vested interests in promotions and marks and degrees and graduations are challenged. Naturally we are inclined to be indignant. "If the stories that these three men tell is true," we say, "then what comes of our

carefully formulated 'scientifically' evaluated courses of study? What comes of our standardized and new type tests? What comes of our skills? What comes of our statistical surveys and our doctors' dissertations? What comes of this job which the reviewer holds—'professor of secondary education'?"

It seems that Bishop N. F. S. Grundtvig had that absurdly profound faith in the masses which seems to characterize such unconventional non-academic spirits as Jesus and Pestalozzi and Lincoln and Jefferson. He thought that even young adult peasants who could scarcely read and write must have had, nevertheless, an urge to seek answers for the questions which life raised in their hearts—questions of destiny, of vocation, of sex, of their relations to the age in which they lived. So he urged that an institution be organized for the young adults of the whole Danish people, in which their questions could be answered by themselves under the guidance of wise adults, in which they could experience freedom, in which the spirit of Pestalozzian humanitarianism might be supreme, in which the youth might come to feel their Danish heritage of song and lore and tradition, and in which a science in close touch with their lives should illuminate them. He waited long, from 1829 till 1844, before the first Folk High School was opened.

Then in 1849, during the Danish-German War for the possession of Schleswig, came constitutional government and with it there took shape a definite nationalistic impulse. Directly after the war, Christen Kold opened the first successful Folk High School at Ryslinge. As an outcome of the disastrous war of 1864 and of the disruption of Danish agriculture due to the falling price of grain, the number of such schools increased rapidly; they developed as the best remedy for the regeneration of the Danish people.

How Kold gave the Grundtvigian schools their spiritual form; how he awakened the inner life of his pupils; how he influenced the practical life of his community though he never spoke about practical or technical matters, how he *enlivened* the young people rather than *enlightened* them and so stimulated them to a life of self-enlightenment—it was an astounding achievement. How Schroeder, his wife, and his colleagues at Askov Folk High School, and how the others who started their schools after 1864 carried the work forward—here is the profoundest educational development of the modern world. To comprehend its significance the book under review must be read and pondered. And when this has been done, the reader should follow it with Hart's *Light from the North*, with Knight's *Among the Danes*. The reviewer can only assert his belief that such an educational philosophy and practice as these leaders have developed for the young adults of Denmark is equally sound for all human beings of all ages everywhere.

PHILIP W. L. COX

Mental Hygiene, by DANIEL WOLFORD LA RUE. The Macmillan Company, 1927, 443 pages.

Mental Hygiene is the title of a very practical book written by one of the most successful teachers of psychology. The author's purpose in writing

the book was to convey to others those facts and principles about mental health which have been carefully tested in the course of several years' study and teaching of mental hygiene. While admitting that many inherited traits predispose the individual toward mental health or disease, the author emphasizes the fact that mental disease and health are something which, within limits, can be practised and learned.

The superior individual or teacher is one who has developed a fine, strong, hygienic personality. The author presents the problems of mental hygiene as related to vocation, recreation, love, life, and to social adjustments in general.

The contents include discussions of the forces that determine personality, inheritance and development of traits, the mental hygiene of adult life, and the mental hygiene of childhood and adolescence.

Many parts of the book are quite elementary; other parts could only be understood if the student had a good grounding in psychology and biology. The body-mind discussion is somewhat confusing, if not misleading. Terms like "bio-mental" and "phreno-mental" are not likely to add to clarity.

The inferences drawn from the study of famous and infamous families are open to question. In the Edwards family, as in the Kallikak family, there may be traced two lines of descendants of one Elizabeth Tuttle, whose personal record, as well as that of her brothers, points to gross immorality and serious maladjustment. How "the stream is like its source" is not quite clear. Moreover, McDougall's classification of instincts, which is quoted in this volume, does not seem to meet with general approval among psychologists.

The author raises once more the old question as to which, if either, is the more important, heredity or environment. From the discussion, it is difficult to predict what a student's conclusion would be. It would seem more profitable to the reviewer if the point was made that heredity and environment are complementary and that the question of their relative importance is unanswerable as it is stated.

Statements like "mind can cause bodily illness" and "mind can cure bodily illness," while true in a common-sense way, are scientifically untrue and misleading. Body processes, involving mental processes, may influence other body processes for good or ill, but mental processes (mind) are not something apart from body processes. Mind from a metaphysical standpoint may be quite another matter.

On the whole, the book is well written, practical, and sane. It should be read by teachers, ministers, nurses, physicians, and discussed in parent-teacher meetings.

Just what effect the study of mental hygiene books and articles will have upon adolescent and adult individuals possessing a nervous constitution is open to conjecture. Except in a small percentage of individual cases, its possibilities for improving human poise, happiness, and efficiency are probably tremendous.

CHARLES EDWARD SKINNER

Child Guidance, by SMILEY BLANTON and MARGARET GRAY BLANTON. New York: Century Company, 1927, xviii + 301 pages.

Child Guidance will prove of great interest to those who are working with children in the nursery school or in the primary grades of the elementary school. It deals with the management of the conduct of the normal child during the early years of life. The first chapter deals with original nature. Then follows a group of chapters on early habits—learning to walk, to talk, to eat, to sleep, and to control the excretory functions. A second group of chapters deals with the management of the nursery and the child's daily regimen, sensory training, discipline, initiation into the mysteries of birth, sex, and death, learning to adjust to the group, intelligence and nervousness. A third group of chapters deals in some detail with socialization and the formation of personality traits. The book is of a highly practical nature, full of suggestions as to how to handle the child in specific situations. It is based on a wide experience with children, the Blantons having been connected for a number of years with the Minneapolis Child Guidance Clinic, of which Smiley Blanton was director. It is unique in the literature of child guidance for its appreciation of the importance of group relationships and experiences, as over against original nature traits, in fashioning the child's attitudes and personality. H. W. Z.

Psychological Care of Infant and Child, by JOHN B. WATSON. New York: W. W. Norton & Company, 1928, 195 pages.

In writing the *Psychological Care of Infant and Child*, John Watson turns from his laboratory, and his more recent attempts at popularizing psychology, to offer advice to those who deal, as parents or teachers, with the formative years of childhood. This advice grows out of his now celebrated Johns Hopkins experiments on the emotions of the infant. The chapter on "How the Behaviorist Studies" is an excellent popular statement of the modern experimental attitude toward child behavior, and gives a good idea of the technique of experimental nursery and laboratory. The chapters, "Fears of Children and How to Control Them," "The Dangers of Too Much Mother Love," and "Rage and Temper Tantrums and How to Control Them," are very illuminating and of practical application. *Psychological Care of Infant and Child* will prove especially useful to the teacher of the small child as a means of interesting and securing the co-operation of the parents of problem children. H. W. Z.

The Nervous Child, by H. C. CAMERON. London: Oxford University Press, 1928 (reprint), viii + 233 pages.

The Nervous Child, written by H. C. Cameron, pediatrician of Guy's Hospital of London, was first printed in 1919. Since this excellent little volume is not widely known in this country, the reviewer takes the occasion of the recent issuing of a new edition to call it to the attention of THE JOURNAL's readers. Written by a physician, the book deals with the more

pathological behavior disorders of early childhood. Yet Doctor Cameron's point of view is psychological—"The nervous infant, restless, wriggling, and constantly crying! The nervous child, unstable, suggestible, passionate, and full of nameless fears! The nervous school boy or school girl prone to self-analysis, subject-conscious, and easily exhausted! And how many and how various are the manifestations of this temperament! Refusal of food, refusal of sleep, negativism, irresponsibility, and violent fits of temper, vomiting, diarrhea, morbid flushing and blushing, habit spasms, phobias—all controlled not by reproof or by medicine, but by good management and a clear understanding of their nature." Like the preceding volumes, *The Nervous Child* is full of practical suggestions on child management.

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH

Your Nervous Child, by ERWIN WEXBERG. New York: Albert and Charles Boni, 1927, xiv + 178 pages.

Doctor Wexberg, the author of *Your Nervous Child*, is associated with Alfred Adler in the famous school clinics of Vienna. He sees various nervous symptoms as hysterical devices by which a child with a sense of inferiority tries to control the people about him. This feeling of inferiority, while it may have an organic basis, is largely due to faulty management on the part of parent and teacher, and the cure of nervousness lies in correcting that faulty management. "Happily we have passed beyond the spanking pedagogy of our grandparents. But should we, therefore, consider all pedagogy as old-fashioned and begin to educate the child only by the clever use of drops and injections? Of course not. The educated lay public is always a whole or at least a half generation behind the advance of science. And so we find that the present conception of "nervousness" in children as well as in adults has the significance that was attached to it by physicians thirty years ago. The fact that medical science no longer has the same conception of "nervousness" which it had at the end of the nineteenth century, that a tremendous transformation in psychiatric conceptions has taken place in the last three decades, is quite unknown to the lay public. This transformation can briefly be indicated thus: The causes, the manifestations, and the treatment of nervousness, in particular the nervousness of children, are not nearly so much a medical as a pedagogic problem" Doctor Wexberg illustrates his points with many interesting incidents from the practice of the Vienna clinics.

H. W. Z

Educational Measurements, by NORMAN FENTON and DEAN A. WORCESTER. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1928, ix + 147 pages

Educational Measurements, by Fenton and Worcester, is an elementary handbook, emphasizing material of practical use in the classroom. The chapter headings are: "Significance to the Teacher of the Tests-and-Measurements Movement", "Meaning and Value of Intelligence Tests"; "Subject-Matter Tests and the Improvement of Teaching Efficiency"; "New-Type Examinations and their Daily Use in the Class-Room"; "Elementary Statistical Methods Useful to the Teacher"; and "A Form

for Studying and Recording the Characteristics of the Individual Child." The material is concisely and clearly presented, with brief selected bibliographies. Questions on the subject matter of each chapter adapt the book to use in teacher-training institutions.

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH

Interpretation of Educational Measurements, by TRUMAN LEE KELLEY. Yonkers-on-the-Hudson: World Book Company, 1928, x + 363 pages.

Interpretation of Educational Measurements, by Truman Kelley, is a more complete and theoretical work dealing with the practice and significance of educational measurement. Unique features of the book are the study of intelligence and achievement measures in their mutual relationships, an emphasis on measures of reliability and an effort honestly to determine the trustworthiness of every conclusion reached, and the publication of the ratings for significance and reliability in individual measurement of all the well-known intelligence and educational tests.

The volume opens with a historical survey of mental measurement and a discussion of the purposes served by educational tests. There follow chapters on the measurement of group achievement, on the measurement of individual achievements, and the determination of individual idiosyncrasies. The latter of these chapters is of exceptional interest, being an attempt to isolate the measurable abilities which may differ from child to child, or among themselves in the case of the same child, as a result of idiosyncrasies of innate neural structure and function, that is as a result of original nature endowment. Doctor Kelley discards the notion of "general intelligence" as having little objective vindication and little pragmatic value. The argument on which the chapter is based is from statistical evidences solely. There will be many who feel that statistical evidences are of dubious reliability, when not supplemented by experiment, in distinguishing among original and acquired traits. Be this as it may, Doctor Kelley makes a strong case for the measurement of individual idiosyncrasy, and its implications for individualization of curriculum and vocational guidance.

Succeeding chapters deal with the detection of irregularities of development by means of the Stanford Achievement Test, elementary statistical procedure, and the technical arguments in support of principals used in preceding chapters. The two concluding chapters, totaling over one hundred and fifty pages, consider in turn all the well-known mental and education tests, giving the date of their construction, their reliability, the population used in determining this reliability, critical studies of the tests, and other pertinent data. These chapters will prove enlightening to many who, wishing to use tests intelligently but without expert knowledge of test construction, have found themselves swamped by the deluge of tests of the last decade.

A brief but excellent bibliography is appended, with a list of the houses publishing test materials. The volume is accurately and comprehensively indexed. All in all, it is an outstanding contribution to the literature of mental and educational measurements.

H. W. Z.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Mr. A. T. Stanforth of Floral Park, N. Y., who received his Ph.D. degree in New York University (1928) has accepted a position in the School of Education of Indiana University.

Mr. A. S. Rude of South Dakota who recently received his Ph.D. degree in educational psychology at New York University has been appointed a professor of education in the State Normal School at Lock Haven, Pennsylvania.

Assistant Professor H. W. Zorbaugh of the department of educational sociology of New York University returns to his position at the beginning of this year after enjoying a year of travel and recuperation of health in the Southwest.

Professor Henry L. Pritchett, head of the department of sociology of Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas, returns to Dallas after spending a year's leave in which he completed his doctorate at New York University and assisted as an instructor in the department of educational sociology. Dr. Pritchett's dissertation was in the field of mental and social hygiene.

Mr. William Barlow Evans formerly dean of Thiel College and instructor in English and literature in New York University joins the faculty of the West Virginia State Normal at Fairmount as head of the English department. Mr. Evans received his Ph.D. degree in New York University in June. Professor Walter Barnes of the above institution came to New York University in exchange of positions to complete the doctorate in education.

Professor Philip W. L. Cox, head of the department of secondary education of New York University, taught in the School of Education of Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, during the past summer session. Professor and Mrs. Cox spent August and September in Europe.

Mr. Paul Irvine of the Montclair Junior High School who received his Ph.D. degree at New York University the past summer has been appointed to a position in education in the Colorado State College at Gunnison, Colorado.

Mr. John Patterson, superintendent of schools, Athens, Ohio, joined the faculty of education of New York University as a lecturer in education. He will finish his graduate study in school administration.

The following persons have been awarded tuition scholarships of \$200 each in the New York University School of Education for the Boys' Club Study for 1928-1929.

1. James Ruell Griffiths, Salt Lake City, Utah, assistant professor of physical education and director of physical education for men, University of Utah; A.B., University of Utah, 1914, graduate work, University of Utah, two years; playground director; Sponsor and Guardian of the Salt Lake City Boys' Club, Superintendent of Playgrounds, Salt Lake City 1911-1915; made survey of home recreation and facilities of several thousand

school children, Salt Lake City; made recreation survey of nearly 2,000 adolescents and adults; experience in mental and physical testing; experience in directing groups in play activities; twenty years of teaching experience, grade school, high school, and university.

2. Kenneth Everard Kepner, Newtonville, Massachusetts, A.B. Williams College; Director, Williamstown Boys' Club, 1926-1928; Director, Camp Lyon for Boys, Lenox, Massachusetts, 1927-1928; camping experience, seven years; experience in sailing, hiking, and woodcraft.

3. Miss Emma Sonya Schrieber, New York City, A.B., Wellesley College; graduate work, New York School of Social Work and Pennsylvania School of Social Work; M.A. in sociology, Columbia University; Wellesley Scholar; German prizes in high school and college; Immigration Department of the Council of Jewish Women, Farm and Rural Department of the Council of Jewish Women; Jewish Community Survey of Baltimore; Delinquency Section of the Jewish Communal Survey of Greater New York, made by the Bureau of Jewish Social Research, three years' field work on Lower East Side; six months' industrial welfare work; family case work, three years, Philadelphia; special skill in interviewing and experience in working with boys in problem situations.

4. Elton T. Gustafson, Manchester, New Hampshire, A.B., University of New Hampshire; A.M., University of New Hampshire, several years' experience with boys in Y. M. C. A. work; counselor at boys' camp three summers; skill in swimming, life saving, shorthand and typing; special training in social sciences in college.

5. DeAlton Partridge, Provo, Utah. Senior, Brigham Young University; Manager of Forensics, Brigham Young University, 1927-1928; assistant boys' camp director, three years; in Boy Scout movement, nine years, Eagle Scout; Field Executive, Boy Scouts of America, one year; at present on Research Staff, National Office, Boy Scouts of America; experienced in shorthand, typewriting, mental testing, community singing, leather working, woodcraft, and debating.

PROBLEMS OF AERONAUTICS IN THE SCHOOLS

Through the generosity of the Daniel Guggenheim Fund for the Promotion of Aeronautics, the Committee on Elementary and Secondary Aeronautical Education, of which Dean Withers is chairman, was enabled to conduct a course in "Problems of Aeronautics in the Schools" during the summer session of 1928. Scholarships were granted to qualified students, after such students had been recommended by their superintendents or by others capable of judging of their qualifications. The course was organized by Dr. Ralph E. Pickett, professor of vocational education, and was under the direction of Mr. Roland H. Spaulding.

Among the outstanding figures in the field of aeronautics who were invited to address the class were the following: Mr. Augustus Post, aeronautic expert; Mr. Ralph Upson, aeronautical engineer; Mr. Walter Hinton, transatlantic flyer and president of the Aviation Institute of the United States Army; Col. Paul Henderson, president, National Air Transport;

Major Gordon Reel, United States Army Reserve; Lieut. John Iseman, United States Navy Reserve, Mr. Harry F. Guggenheim, präsident, The Daniel Guggenheim Fund for the Promotion of Aeronautics, Inc.; Alexander Klemm, professor of aeronautical engineering, New York University; Lieut. Charles H. Grant, director, Duncan Camp of Boy Building; Mr. C. S. Jones, sales manager and chief test pilot, Curtiss Airplane and Motor Co.; Mr. J. N. Pierce, Pioneer Aircraft Instrument Co.; Dr. F. L. Hoffman, research consultant, Babson Institute; Mr. Luther K. Bell, secretary, Aeronautical Chamber of Commerce.

Each student worked on some topic in which he or she was vitally interested, and the results of the work constituted the contribution of each student to the course. A library of books and magazines was made available for the use of the students, and several model planes, slides, films, and other illustrative materials were presented to the group. Visits to several air fields and manufacturing plants were undertaken, and an opportunity was given each member of the class to fly at reduced rates through the courtesy extended at Curtiss field.

The contributions made by the students are to be utilized by Dean Withers's committee in order to help school systems throughout the country to introduce various types of aeronautical education in terms of the needs discovered by a study of those school systems.

The response to the course was so satisfactory that a similar course will be conducted during the academic year and during the next summer session.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Professor J. L. Meriam of the Department of Education of the University of California at Los Angeles received his A.B. at Oberlin; A.M. in Harvard and Ph. D. at Columbia. Professor Meriam has had wide and varied experience as teacher in village schools, high-school principal and superintendent of schools, as well as critic teacher and director of one of the most widely known experimental schools in the United States. For twenty years Dr. Meriam was professor of education and director of the Experimental School of the University of Missouri. A notable outcome of his work and experimental study was the publication of his book on *Child Life and the Curriculum*. This experimental school was one of the first attempts to set up a program of education of the interests and activities of child life. Professor Meriam is a nationally known figure as a lecturer on education in summer schools and teachers' conventions.

Mr. Herbert A. Tonne, an instructor in commercial education of the School of Education of New York University, received his Ph.B. at the University of Chicago; his A.M. at New York University, and is now completing his doctorate in the same institution. Mr. Tonne has been a teacher of commercial subjects in the high schools at Elizabeth, New Jersey, and New Rochelle, New York.

Professor Verner Martin Sims is at Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston, Louisiana.

Dr. Gladstone H. Yeuell, associate professor of education and assistant dean of the School of Education of the University of Cincinnati, is a native of Alabama. He received his A.B. at Alabama Presbyterian College, A.M. at the University of Chicago, and his doctorate at the University of Cincinnati. Dr. Yeuell had several years work in public education in Alabama as superintendent of schools, instructor in the State Normal School, and in the State Department of Education before going to Cincinnati.

A sketch of Dr. Stephen G. Rich appeared in a previous issue of THE JOURNAL.

The following note came too late to be inserted with Miss Mazie Earle Wagner's article on "Superstitions and Their Social and Psychological Correlatives Among College Students," in the September issue: "This experiment was conducted on the freshman class at the University of Buffalo during the winter of 1926-1927. The writer is indebted to Professor Edward S. Jones, director of personnel research, and Professor Niles Carpenter, head of the department of sociology, for much advice and criticism. Much of the material concerning the religion, race, emotional control, etc., of the subjects was obtained from the Office of Personnel Research."

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EDITORIAL NOTES

The educational sociologist is facing a variety of interesting although perplexing questions or problems at the present time in the development of his field of effort. The first of these problems is one that has had considerable discussion during the past year in the columns of *THE JOURNAL*; namely, Is educational sociology a science or can it become a science? The editors of *THE JOURNAL* take the position that educational sociology must make its contribution through productive research if it is to make an important contribution for the educator. In taking this position there is no wish to discount the importance of a social or a sociological philosophy of education. As a matter of fact, educational sociology is providing a body of data that may be expected to clarify the whole field of the philosophy of education. Moreover, a sociological philosophy of education is indispensable to an adequate interpretation of educational endeavor and programs. The sociologist, interested in education, however, must keep his mind clear and devote his energies to the scientific aspect of the subject if he wishes to advance the interests of the field.

The person primarily interested in a social philosophy of education ought to classify himself with the philosophers

and not with the sociologists who are seeking to approach the subject from an experimental point of view. Our point in answer to this first question raised, then, is that while philosophy has a function and a very important one it will not serve the demand for a scientific approach to education. Moreover, a scientific educational sociology has an important contribution to make to the whole problem of education. We have met frequently with the assumption on the part of teachers that they should be interested in psychology and method and various other college subjects but that sociology has nothing to offer for the teacher unless he be a teacher of sociology in a university. This, however, is not the case. The determination of the immediate outcomes of education, the emphasis upon education as a means of social adjustment or adjustment to group life, are matters with which the sociologist is primarily concerned. The problem of the educational sociologist, therefore, is to demonstrate to the teaching public as well as to administrative officers that a knowledge of sociology is indispensable to them in their vocational endeavors.

Another problem which the educational sociologist must face is that of the sociologist who cannot see that educational sociology as a study has a distinct place at all. Perhaps the reason for the development of educational sociology as a subject, very largely separated from sociology, is the fact that the sociologist has not been interested in education. He has been interested in religion, social work, crime, and various other social phenomena but has made almost no contribution to the study of education. The need for such an approach was so definitely felt by the educators that some of the most distinct contributions have come from them, and even in the case of the sociologist, the contributions have been made by those who have turned from their major interest of sociology into sociology applied to education. The editors feel that educational sociology is merely one branch of applied sociology but it is the most important one and because of the neglect of the sociologists them-

selves, the story of psychology is likely to be repeated in this field. That is, educational sociology may make some of the most important contributions to sociology itself as educational psychology has done in its own field.



PERSONALITY AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH

IV

ORIGINAL NATURE

MATURATION AND COENOTROPES¹

We have seen that infants enter the world with a common equipment of unlearned behavior mechanisms. These mechanisms are functions of their bodily structure. Infants behave alike because they are made alike. Now the infant's bodily structures are not finished at birth. The infant continues to grow after it is born just as it grew before it was born. There is little evidence that there is an elaboration of new structures after birth. But muscles, glands, and nervous system continue to develop. Many organs are incapable of their characteristic functions at birth, and function only as they mature. Maturation occasionally takes place years after birth, as in the case of the gonads which do not begin to secrete until adolescence.

Spalding, in a simple experiment, demonstrated that flying is instinctive in birds, though it appears a considerable period after hatching. His experiment consisted in dividing a brood the day it was hatched, allowing one group of nestlings to grow up with the parent birds, but taking the other group from the nest and confining them in such a way as to preclude all experiments with flying. After the nest fledglings had "learned" to fly, the confined fledglings were liberated and found to fly immediately with all the precision of the nest fledglings. That is, the awkward experiments of young birds as they acquire the ability to fly are not an illustration of learning, but of the gradual maturation of bodily structures upon which the flying instinct is dependent.²

¹ This article should have preceded the article in the June issue, "How We Learn—Negative Adaptation," p. 613

² Spalding, *Nature*, XII, p. 507

Many psychologists have inferred that responses such as walking, which appear at approximately the same time in all infants, are likewise instincts. The child's first halting and unsteady efforts being attributed, like the young birds' awkward attempts at flying, to the immature condition of the bodily structures involved. Indeed, the instinct theory makes its last stand on the "maturation hypothesis." The fact that studies of the responses of the newborn infant reveal no instincts, it is maintained, does not preclude the "ripening" of instincts weeks, months, or even years after birth. James held that there are many instincts that ripen from time to time as the individual matures. He wrote, "There is a happy moment for fixing skill in drawing, for making boys collectors in natural history, and presently dissectors and botanists; then for initiating them into the harmonies of mechanics and the wonders of physical and chemical law" These "happy moments" were the moments at which instincts "ripened."³ Our curriculum makers were quick to devise elaborate curricula to take advantage of these periods of "ripening," confidently setting the ages at which given instincts might be expected to appear.

The problem is enormously complicated by the fact that immediately after birth the infant's original responses begin to be overlaid with learned responses. By the time the infant is two years old it has become next to impossible to make significant observations as to unlearned behavior. Even where maturation involves marked bodily changes, as at adolescence, it is impossible to say what behavior changes might be correlated with them on that hypothetical desert island that has loomed so large in psychological speculation. The closer we keep to birth, the more significant the evidence will be.

³ James, *Principles of Psychology*, II, p. 398 ff. James also held that if the instinct was not exercised within a given period after its maturing it would "fade" or disappear. There is certainly a "happy moment" for teaching a child any habit—but it is a time when prerequisite habits have been acquired and before incompatible or conflicting habits have been built up, not a time of "ripening" of an instinct, and the "happy moment" occurs at widely divergent ages in different children, the age depending upon the child's history and experiences.

Let us take crawling and walking for instance. Both of these are quite complicated bodily responses. The critical experiment would consist in confining a number of children until beyond the age when the average child crawls or walks, and then seeing whether the children that had been confined would at once crawl or walk quite as well as other children (an experiment like that of Spalding with the fledglings). No one seems to have done this. As a result we must look to such observations as have been made in the nursery.⁴

Crawling is an indeterminate kind of response. No two infants exhibit quite the same form of behavior in crawling. Many infants never crawl at all, but proceed directly to walking. The complex mechanism of balancing, standing, and walking is a very slowly developing one. Of his nursery observations of crawling and walking, Watson says:

After many experiments I am inclined to believe that crawling comes largely as a result of habit formation. When the infant is placed on its stomach, the contact and kinæsthetic stimuli bring out very general bodily activity. Oftentimes one side of the body is more active than the opposite side, circular (circus) motions result. In one nine months infant, turning in a circle resulted for days but no forward progress could be observed. In this gradual twisting and turning of the body, the child sometimes moves right, sometimes left, sometimes forward, indeed and sometimes backward. If, in these movements, it manages to reach and manipulate some object, we have practically a situation like that of the hungry rat in a maze that has food at its center. A habit of crawling towards objects results. It probably could always be taught if teaching were regularly instituted with the milk bottle as the stimulus. Our daily test is conducted as follows: The naked infant is placed on the carpet. His legs are extended and a mark is set at the furthest reach of the toes. Then a nursing bottle or a lump of sugar (previously conditioning him on sugar so that he will struggle for it) is put just out of reach of the hands. Five minutes is enough for the test. Sometimes at the end of the test if crawling does not appear an electric heater is placed a few feet behind him. This merely hastens general bodily activity.

⁴Vid. Mary Carver Jones *The Development of Early Behavior Patterns in Young Children*, Arnold Gesell *The Mental Growth of the Pre-School Child*, Baldwin and Stecher, *The Psychology of the Pre-School Child*, and Watson, *Behaviorism*, for interesting discussions of the acquisition of these and many other abilities. Gesell contains many interesting illustrations from moving pictures.

The whole complex mechanism of standing upright, first with support, then without support, then walking, then running, then jumping, is a very slowly developing one. The start of the whole mechanism seems to lie in the development of the so-called "extensor thrust." The extensor thrust is not usually present during the first few months of infancy. Some months after birth if the infant is gradually lifted up by the arms to nearly a standing position with a part of its feet in contact with the floor at all times, there comes, as weight falls on the feet, a stiffening of the muscles of both legs. Soon after the appearance of this reflex, the child begins to attempt to pull itself up. Between seven and eight months of age many infants can pull themselves up with very little help and can support themselves in a standing position holding on to some object for a short space of time. After this feat has been accomplished, the next stage in the general process is walking around holding on to an object. The final stage is the first step alone. . . . Often the first step is taken at one year of age and sometimes slightly earlier. . . . After the first step is taken the remainder of the act has to be learned just as the youth learns to "balance" himself in bicycle riding, swimming, skating, and tight-rope walking.⁵

Two factors would seem to go hand in hand in the development of the mechanism of crawling and walking—the strengthening of muscles due to both maturation and exercise, and habit formation or the building up of serial responses. While walking has been perfected in the average child by the fourteenth month, even normal children vary greatly in the age at which they walk. The amount and persistence of adult aid and encouragement, the presence of walking playmates, the degree of "waiting on" accorded the child, the interest of the objects obtained by walking, weight, health, mental precocity or retardation, falls experienced during attempts at walking, and many other factors promote or delay the integration of the mechanism. There is little in the evidence afforded by the nursery to support the hypothesis that walking is the result of the "ripening" of an instinct.

It would seem rather that walking is one of many habits that all individuals develop as a result of the interaction of a common original nature, and a uniform process of maturation, with the same orderly world of physical events. For these habits common to all men, irrespective of race

⁵ Watson, *Behaviorism*, pp. 91-92

or culture (as distinguished on the one hand from private habits due to the individual's unique experiences; and as distinguished on the other hand from the customs he shares with the members of his social group) Smith and Guthrie propose the name of *coenotropes*.⁶

Equipped with fairly definite response tendencies, a baby is born into an orderly world. He is exposed to a systematic routine and a fixed sequence of situations. Above all, the combination of stimuli resident in such objects as his bed, his clothing, his tub, his mother, and his own body is almost invariable. The original nature common to all babies, together with the inevitable environment they all share, develops similar habits in all children. That all people have not identical habits is due to individual differences in endowment and to the peculiarities of the world that each lives in. These neurological and environmental differences are more likely to be noticed than the commonality of endowment and the universality of the world order, which latter are so commonplace that their importance is often underestimated.

The habits that are produced and called out by common situations that every one experiences, are frequently given such names as fighting instinct, mating instinct, hunting instinct, hoarding instinct, gregarious instinct, or instincts of curiosity, approval, scorn, mastery, and submission. Even in the behavior of lower animals the acts described by these terms may owe something to learning. When performed by man, they are always *acquired* reaction tendencies, though we all possess them by virtue of our having a common original nature that is trained in a common world. The extent of man's capacity for forming conditioned responses, which distinguishes him from lower animals, is the outstanding attribute of human nature.

Habits that men universally share are obviously to be distinguished from the private habits of typewriting, piano playing, vocations, hobbies, personal idiosyncrasies, and the like. There is no adequate term for these common habits in psychology. For lack of a better word we shall employ the term *coenotropes* to describe common modes of learned response that are the product of original nature and commonly shared environment.⁷

As the child grows older we see him crawling, standing, balancing, walking, jumping, running, climbing, reaching, manipulating, pushing, pulling, hitting, fighting, throwing, pursuing moving objects, avoiding obstacles, and doing many other things that the young of lower animals do as a result of neurological endowment. While the maturation of

⁶The word *coenotrope*, pronounced *seenotrope*, is derived from the Greek KOLVOS common, and TPOTIOS, habit.

⁷Smith and Guthrie, *General Psychology*, pp. 136-37.

muscles and nervous system are prerequisite to the development of these responses in children, they seem none the less to be learned by trial and error experience in a world of uniform conditions.

Handedness is an interesting case in point. More than ninety per cent of adults are right-handed (and handedness usually implies sidedness). Not more than five per cent are clearly left-handed. It has been maintained that this fact is due to the intrauterine position of the fœtus. Watson, however, after elaborate tests of handedness at birth and in early infancy finds no indication of a preference for the use of the right hand. Measurements of the structural formation of hands, wrists, palms, fingers, and forearms of several hundred infants (with instruments of great precision specially made for the purpose) revealed no differences in anatomical structure as between the right and left hand and arm. In infants of three weeks no preferential use of either hand in supporting the body weight (tested by having infant suspend himself by one hand until he dropped) could be discovered. Tests of the total amount of work done by each hand during the first month of life discovered no difference. "Handedness" varied from day to day.* Watson also studied handedness in infants in whom habits of reaching had been established by presenting objects to them. Handedness in given infants varied from day to day, and no preferential use of either hand was revealed.

Yet by the time most children are a year old, if not earlier, they begin to exhibit well-marked symptoms of a preference for the use of the right hand. How is this to be accounted for? Probably by their being born into a right-handed world. Most children are trained by their parents, from early infancy, to use the right hand in holding and

* Watson used an ingenious device called a "work adder" in this experiment. The "work adder" is in principle an "escapement wheel." It works in such a way that no matter how the infant moves its arms about it turns the wheel always in one direction. As the wheel revolves it winds up a small lead weight attached to the wheel by a cord. A "work adder" is attached to each hand, with the weights just touching the table top. The infant lies naked on his back unstimulated by the experimenter. At the end of the period of observation the height in inches of the two weights above the table top is measured.

manipulating such articles as spoons, cups, and pencils. The child is forced to eat with the right hand. Objects offered to the child are extended so that they will be grasped with the right hand. The child is held so that he will wave "bye-bye" with his right hand. He is taught to shake hands with his right hand. Any tendency towards left-handed habits is likely to be expressly interfered with. Many of our implements and pieces of furniture, from baseball gloves and scissors to the chairs in lunch rooms, are made for right-handed people. It is little wonder the child learns to use his right hand in preference to his left. Additional evidence that right-handedness is learned is afforded by Doll, who finds that among the feeble-minded about half are left-handed.⁹ The feeble-minded are characteristically apathetic towards instruction, and are frequently born into families where but little attention is paid to their habits. Hollingworth observes that even domesticated animals develop characteristics of sidedness under the manipulation of a right-handed world, although animals in their native state have never been shown to manifest sidedness.

Why we should have a right-handed world is still a matter of speculation. The fact that ethnologists have never discovered a left-handed society makes it seem that it is hardly a matter of chance. In museums of ethnology a left-handed weapon is an anomaly (although the Australian boomerang is usually thrown with the left hand). It has been suggested that primitive man on his forays learned to carry his shield on his left arm by observing that those who did not were likely never to return. The heart, being on the left side, is difficult to protect with a shield on the right arm. The shield being carried on the left arm, the right arm was employed in manipulation and the use of weapons. So right-handedness was developed. By the time shields were obsolete the world had become

⁹ Doll, *Anthropometry as an Aid to Mental Diagnosis*, Research Publication No. 8 Training School, Vineland, New Jersey, 1916

right-handed. The theory is fanciful at best. More significant is the observation of Joteyko that the exercise of the left hand and arm has a greater effect on heart action than has exercise of the right hand and arm, a fact that holds for both right- and left-handed people. This fact, if substantiated, might be supposed to result in more frequent and prolonged use of the right than of the left hand, and long ago to have given rise to right-handedness which gradually became fixed in custom.

The question inevitably arises as to why, in our right-handed world, even five per cent of adults should be left-handed. It has been suggested that the manner of carriage by mother or nurse, or an unusual sleeping position in infancy, may be responsible. Watson points out that infant habits of thumb, finger, and hand sucking, unless wisely handled, may persist well into childhood. Usually, though not always, the one hand or the other is fairly steadily used. The hand so used might be expected to lag behind the other in developing habits of reaching and manipulation. Moreover, as children learn to walk, they may use one hand to the exclusion of the other in holding on objects for support. The hand so used might, again, lag behind the other in developing habits of reaching and manipulation. It is also true that families vary greatly in the attention they give to habit formation in infants. Of those infants to whom little adult attention is given a certain number might be expected merely as a matter of chance to develop left-handed habits. Injuries to the right hand or arm might, further, lead to left-handedness. The matter has never been adequately studied.

However this may be, the development of right-handedness interestingly illustrates how individuals born into a common environment with a common equipment of unlearned behavior mechanisms inevitably develop habits as uniform as the instincts of animals. A large number of the human activities formerly considered to be instincts are clearly coenotropes

V

SITUATION AND ATTITUDE

The old reflex-arc theory tended to break behavior up into segmental responses to isolated stimuli, such as the jerking back of the hand from a hot point, the blinking of the eye at an object passed rapidly before it, salivation at the taste of food, or the turning of the head at the ringing of a bell. These segmental responses to isolated stimuli were known as tropisms. Certain writers, notably Jaques Loeb, attempted to reduce all behavior to tropisms. While their speculations carried with them a certain plausibility—the tropism being hailed as the "atom" of behavior—they proved of little use in predicting the behavior of actual individuals in average-life situations, to say nothing of their inability to throw light upon such vagaries of human nature as are evidenced in the spoiled child, the divorcée, or the acts of an American Congress. In fact, they gave a greatly over-simplified picture of human behavior.

We have already pointed out that the individual does not respond to stimulation with this or that segment of the body; that he responds to all stimulation as a whole. Responses are total rather than segmental. For the tropism we substitute behavior. It remains to emphasize the fact that, save perhaps beyond the heavy turf walls of Pavlov's laboratory, we never are responding to isolated stimuli. Rather the person is constantly assailed by a multiplicity of stimuli—visual, auditory, tactual, kinæsthetic, and the like—facilitating, reinforcing, distracting, inhibiting. Behavior is always the result of this interplay of stimuli, a compromise of many responses.

Particularly is this true with advancing age and an unending circle of conditionings and inhibitions.

It makes little difference to the hungry boy of six whether he eats his pudding on the floor or at the table, out of his not overclean pocket or from a silver dish. But when he is forty years older, he may have become an epicure. His dinner must now be punctual or his appetite is spoiled. The cloth must be clean, the lighting subdued, the service expertly deft, the table properly set with all the accessories of food well-cooked and eaten in a seemly manner. There is a great difference between the eating of the little boy sitting on the kitchen floor and that of the epicure whose appetite is spoiled if he happens to have been given some one else's napkin. And yet a clean napkin is not a part of the food.¹⁰

The multiplicity of stimuli which assail an individual at a given moment are known collectively as a situation. We always respond to situations rather than to isolated stimuli.

Given sufficient ingenuity and patience, it might yet seem possible to reduce behavior in a given situation to a mosaic of tropisms—segmental responses to the elements of the situation. But it has been discovered that a situation is more than a composite of stimuli, it is a pattern of arrangement among those stimuli. If when you feed chicks you sprinkle their grain on two squares of paper of different shades of grey, and rap their beaks with a pencil every time they start to peck from the darker shade, they soon learn to peck only from the lighter shade. Koffka has shown that if, after the chicks have been so trained, for the darker of the squares is substituted one of a still lighter shade than the lighter of the original two, the chicks will now peck their grain from this new shade. That is, the pecking response has not been conditioned upon a given shade of grey, but upon the lighter of two shades. The chick responds not to the specific elements of the situation, but to a relationship between these elements. Here we have a simple illustration of the fact that *a situation is more than a composite of stimuli, it is a pattern of arrangement among those stimuli*. Koffka demonstrated the same fact in experiments with children. While two situations may be

¹⁰ G. E. Humphrey, "The Conditioned Reflex and the Elementary Social Reaction" *Journal of Abnormal Psychology and Social Psychology*, 1921, pp. 387-492

composed of identical stimuli, the responses they evoke may be quite unlike if the spatial or temporal arrangement of the stimuli is different. Conversely, two situations may be made up of unlike stimuli, and yet call out similar responses if the pattern of arrangement of the stimuli is the same in each situation.¹¹

It becomes evident from these facts why our research on the mechanisms of human behavior has paid no greater practical dividends. For one thing, the laboratory has concentrated too largely upon isolated stimulus-response mechanisms, has made too little effort at studying total behavior. Further, the control of the laboratory has tended to oversimplify the problem. This control is admirable in itself, and essential to scientific discovery. In the industrial plant we can reproduce the controlled conditions of the physical or chemical laboratory, and make the discoveries of the laboratory pay dividends. But in the exigencies of social life it is impossible to reproduce the controlled conditions of the psychological laboratory—completely to control the pattern and the facilitating, summing and inhibiting effects of the stimuli which enter into the situation of home, schoolroom, playground, or court. Consequently the discoveries of the laboratory have not carried over as we had hoped into every-day life. How they may be made to carry over must itself be made the subject of experiment. Educational psychology is working

¹¹ The significance of the pattern, or *Gestalt*, of the stimuli which make up the situation to which the individual is responding is the central point of emphasis of the recent psychological movement in Germany known as the *Gestalt Psychology*. Already its implications for learning are becoming manifest (see Köhler, *The Growth of the Mind*, and Kohler, *Gestalt Psychology*, both obtainable in English translation) in such practical observations as that 7 and 2 are not the same situation to the child who is learning to add. Considerable

experiment on learning has already been conducted by the *Gestalt* school. Their experiments have not as yet been extended to other forms of behavior. But the *Gestalt* point of view promises interesting discoveries in the not distant future. Pavlov's students, notably Krasnogorski, demonstrated the significance of the temporal pattern of the original and substituted stimuli making up a situation. For example, Krasnogorski conditioned a child's salivation by the association of the ringing of a bell and the presentation of a bonbon. For some days repeated dermal stimulations were made until the child had become negatively adapted to them. Then Krasnogorski began ringing the bell between the separate dermal stimulations, but not offering the bonbon until the dermal stimulation succeeding the ringing of the bell. As a result the first dermal stimulation after the ringing of the bell became a substituted stimulus for salivation. In any way alter the temporal relationship of the stimuli—dermal, bell, dermal,—however and the response failed to take place. See Krasnogorski, N., "Über die Bedingungs-reflexe im Kindesalter," *Jahrbuch zur Kinderpsychologie*, 1909, pp. 1-24.

on this problem with reference to learning in the school. Behavior clinics are beginning to attempt the same thing with reference to the more complicated problems of social adjustment.

To make the problem of prediction more difficult, both the elements of the situation and the behavior patterns of the individual are constantly shifting and undergoing modification in the fortuitous events of every-day life. From day to day it is impossible exactly to reproduce a given situation. From day to day the person's potentialities of response change as the previous day's experiences leave their impress upon his behavior mechanisms. Personality-situation is an ever-changing relationship. Within limits, however, it is a predictable relationship. The central elements and pattern of a situation recur or can be reproduced. Situations fall into types. The person's behavior mechanisms change slowly—unless he has experienced mutilation or shock. The person's responses conform to types. *The typical response to a typical situation we refer to as an attitude.* Attitudes are relatively stable, and within limits predictable personality-situation relationships; or, if you will, the person's total behavior organization—manual, verbal, and visceral, original and conditioned—about a given type of situation.

(To be continued in an early issue)

TRAIT ANALYSIS OF AN ACTIVITY SPONSOR IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

K. FIFE STERRETT

A change in the aims of education during the latter part of the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth centuries, has caused a shift from the preparation of lessons to the preparation for life. The committee of the National Society for the Study of Education, working upon the revision of the curriculum, realize this, for, in their report, "The Foundations of Curriculum-Making," is found the following: "It is of increasing moment that our educational agencies be organized for the task of bringing children to a progressive understanding of their responsibility for social progress and of the problems, practices, and institutions of social life." There is in the educator's mind the desire to develop through activities, habits of right conduct, and creative self-expression. To attain these desires, it is necessary to use the whole school situation, organization, administration, subject-matter content, method of teaching, and the school's extracurricular activities.

In order that extracurricular activities function in the life of the pupil, earnest, intelligent, and inspired direction is necessary from the teaching staff. Hence, intelligent leadership is necessary to obtain the best results. These activities have, therefore, opened up an unexplored field in sponsorship. This study arises out of a felt need for analyzing the leadership which an effective program of extracurricular activities should have. Sponsors as well as directors of extracurricular activities and administrators are concerned with (a) what personal qualities are desired in student advisers, and (b) which of these qualities in a student adviser are *most* desired.

In this paper an attempt is made to find the traits which are conspicuously possessed by successful activity sponsors

TRAITS		NUMBER OF INTERVIEW																								
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
1	Adaptability	*1				1			1					1							1			1		
2	Businessness	*1				*1																				
3	Cheerfulness	*1	1				1		1				1	1	1							1			1	-
4	Cooperativeness																									
5	Courage	*1		*1																						
6	Courtesy																									
7	Curiosity																									
8	Dependability	*1	1		1	1									1	1	1	1					1	1		
9	Enthusiasm	*1	1	1	1		*1																			
10	Fairness																									
11	Firmness																									
12	Forcefulness																									
13	Foresight																									
14	Friendliness																									
15	Honesty																									
16	Humor, Sense of.																									
17	Industriousness	*1																								
18	Initiative																									
19	Intelligence																									
20	Judgment, Good																									
21	Leadership	*1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
22	Loyalty																									
23	Open-mindedness	*1																								
24	Originality																									
25	Patience																									
26	Personal Appearance, Good																									
27	Professional Knowledge	*1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
28	Professional Pride																									
29	Professional Skill																									
30	Punctuality																									
31	Refinement	*1																								
32	Resourcefulness	*1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
33	Responsibility	*1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
34	Self-Control																									
35	Servicefulness	*1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
36	Sincerity																									
37	Sociability																									
38	Sympathy																									
39	Thoughtfulness																									
40	Versatility																									

and which are conspicuously lacking in unsuccessful activity sponsors, and the relative importance of these traits.

Our method and procedure in making the analysis involved four steps: (a) interviews were held with three groups of people, professors of education who have had practical experience in the field, superintendents and principals with experience in supervising club programs, and teachers who have had practical experience sponsoring clubs; (b) translation of trait actions, reported by interviewees into abstract traits; (c) defining those traits in terms of trait actions; (d) forming a composite picture of a club sponsor by evaluating traits according to frequency of mention. The chart on p. 149 sets forth the composite picture of a good activity sponsor that resulted from these interviews:

THE TRAITS OF A GOOD ACTIVITY SPONSOR

Enthusiasm—mentioned by twenty-one interviewees

1. Sponsor takes pupils on hikes, has special gatherings.
2. He asked for club from director of activities.
3. Unsuccessful sponsor took club because he had to, not because he wanted to.
4. Sponsor spends one to five hours planning what is to be done.
5. The work was tedious, yet sponsor was willing and had ability to demonstrate method.
6. Sponsor is present for all meetings of club
7. He brought in Ford auto, tore it down and put it together.
8. He had an interest in senior play.
9. Unsuccessful sponsor allowed members to work without guidance.
10. Successful sponsor asked and induced pupils to come to meetings. "We are going to have a wonderful meeting; you must be present; you cannot miss it."

Leadership—mentioned by nineteen interviewees

1. Sponsor has well-organized club, active committees.
2. He trains pupils to do things themselves.
3. He sees that club does not develop into cliques.
4. He leads by suggestions and permits club to do the rest.
5. He maintains discipline, gets everyone doing something.
6. He turned idea of buying watch for principal to buying for needy.

7 Sponsor was able to build up a good school spirit, pupils learned that sponsor was human so therefore believed that all teachers are human.

Good Judgment—mentioned by fourteen interviewees

1. Sponsor chose club which children wanted, students wanted to crowd in

2. Plans programs interesting to pupils.

3 He does not have too hard work mapped out.

4. He disbands club as soon as it is not worth while.

5 He disbands club when need and interest have died.

6 He does not set qualifications so that only particular group of pupils get into club.

7 Plans activities so that they do not interfere with other school activities.

8. Unsuccessful sponsor mistakes initiative for arrogance; enthusiasm for boldness.

9. Unsuccessful sponsor made continued reference to academic correlation.

10. Unsuccessful sponsor wanted to start initiations by asking questions in Spanish, which embarrassed members, boys and girls did not come to meetings.

Firmness—mentioned by twelve interviewees

1. Sponsor allows no roughness; pupils are orderly.

2 He does not make study periods of club periods.

3 He demands attendance, reasons for absence

4. He is firm with children; does not allow club to become a mere social group.

5 Sponsor does not permit pupils to do as they please.

6. He never allows disorder, indiscreet things.

7. He does not allow pushing pupils.

Resourcefulness—mentioned by eleven interviewees

1. Sponsor has varied activity; music of country in modern language club, literature of country.

2 He hunts for things in own country found in other countries.

3 During courtesy week sponsor had a varied program; he had something new every day.

4 Sponsor started correspondence with French students, studied French plays, customs, folklores, etc He had actual production of French plays.

5 Inexperienced sponsor organized outing Yet because of her personality and interest in pupils, the party was a success

6 Sponsor drew up skeleton outline of constitution, pupils filled in constitution and by-laws to fit needs.

7. He takes pupils out into woods to study nature.

8 In geography club sponsor takes pupils to see mature river valley, pot holes, and caves. Members of chemistry club actually see the preparation of acids.

9. At exhibition, sponsor has girl scout table, camp scene, etc.

Sympathy—mentioned by eleven interviewees

1. Sponsor is liberal towards pupils' opinions.
2. Poor sponsor is too harsh about immature opinion; makes fun of wrong.
3. Sponsor enjoys what youngsters enjoy
4. He does not have timid ones appear publicly.
5. Pupils come to sponsor to talk over things on their minds.
6. Sponsor sees child's point of view in settling a fight

Cooperativeness—mentioned by ten interviewees

1. Sponsor drew up skeleton outline of constitution, club filled in constitution and by-laws to fit needs.
2. Sponsor said, "We will work together on it"
3. He consults superintendent and principal.
4. He considers what other activities are going on in school.
5. He suggests numbers for assembly programs.
6. He consults principal concerning membership.
7. Unsuccessful sponsor had nothing to offer to help other clubs.

Professional Knowledge—mentioned by ten interviewees

1. Forestry club sponsor took course in nature camp.
2. Sponsor should be thoroughly prepared in subject sponsored, be able to answer questions
3. He is able to give reasons why club is organized
4. Sponsor engaged in extracurricular activities in college, is prepared.
5. He has insight into activities of youth, rigs up electric bell in physics club.
6. He attends lectures, reads books on subject
7. Unsuccessful sponsor was handicapped by poor English when presiding at meetings.

Foresight—mentioned by eight interviewees

1. Sponsor plans material beforehand.
2. Poor sponsor had no preconceived plans for activity.
3. Sponsor sees that club does not develop cliques
4. He organized pupils in language club according to ability.
5. Sponsor prepared for club work while in college

Initiative—mentioned by eight interviewees

1. Sponsor drew up skeleton outline of constitution, club filled in constitution and by-laws to fit needs
2. Sponsor put up a guidance program.
3. Sponsor of Latin club is a natural leader, initiates things, gives play in Latin, had "Cremated Caesar" program
4. Sponsor called boys who enjoyed work in a laboratory together for a tentative program

Open-mindedness—mentioned by eight interviewees

1. Sponsor is not self-centered.
2. He asks club what it would like to do.
3. He is ready to accept members' suggestions.
4. He leaves programs or plans open to criticisms.
5. He does not think he is the only one right.
6. Sponsor makes survey to find how to make club better.
7. He advises pupil who wishes to join another club to do so.
8. He sees constructive values of dancing.

Professional Skill—mentioned by eight interviewees

1. Shop sponsor brought in Ford, tore it down, was able to put it back together again.
2. He has ability to demonstrate method.
3. He has no hit or miss methods
4. He puts on program that boys can use
5. He has ability along line of club; musical ability in music club; French for French club, etc
6. Poor sponsor did not take advantage of psychology.

Servicefulness—mentioned by eight interviewees

1. Sponsor is willing to give time.
2. He established a photo club in order to shape up a few boys for life vocations.
3. He sells the school to the community
4. He sponsored the "Pep Club" which felt it was doing a real good for the school.
5. Sponsor taught ventilation system suggested by principal
6. He takes trips outside of school hours.

Fairness—mentioned by seven interviewees

1. Sponsor gives everybody in class an equal chance.
2. He gives fair consideration to suggestions
3. He demands fair play on the athletic field
4. Unsuccessful sponsor put blame of failure of club on pupils; he fell out with the leaders
5. Sponsor sees pupil's point of view in settling a fight
6. He does not pick on weakest member of the group

Patience—mentioned by seven interviewees

1. Sponsor must be a good listener and a good learner
2. Work was tedious yet sponsor was willing to demonstrate method.
3. Sponsor helps slow members, gives them extra help
4. Sponsor worked whole year to get pupils interested in Latin.

Refinement—mentioned by seven interviewees

1. Sponsor does not use slang or vulgarisms outside of school
2. He is not too sissified, not too rough
3. He would not laugh at jokes played upon other teachers.
4. He is not too intimate with members.

5. He has a "sterling" moral character.

6. He does not have mannerisms of grunting, stuttering, winking, etc., which make pupils laugh.

Adaptability—mentioned by six interviewees

1. Sponsor enjoyed what pupils enjoyed.

2. He is able to get along with other members of faculty.

3. He did not resent interference with his own time.

Dependability—mentioned by six interviewees

1. Sponsor is present for all meetings.

2. He attends to his part of the work.

Industriousness—mentioned by six interviewees

1. Sponsor spends one to five hours planning what is to be done.

2. Work was tedious, yet sponsor was willing.

3. Sponsor uses Saturdays and evenings for club.

Intelligence—mentioned by six interviewees

1. Sponsor has unusual and native equipment.

2. Unsuccessful sponsor was slow in answering a direct question.

3. When window in school was broken, sponsor found guilty boys without making threats.

Responsibleness—mentioned by six interviewees

1. Sponsor is prompt for meeting.

2. He conducts meetings seriously in dignified manner.

3. Unsuccessful sponsor damaged morale of school—closed school when she pleased after meeting.

Sincerity—mentioned by six interviewees

1. Sponsor practices what he preaches in regard to personal health habits.

2. He criticises constructively.

3. He gives pep talks from the heart.

4. He develops a program and carries it out himself, not saying, "do as I say and not as I do."

5. He is natural—no striking mannerisms.

Forsefulness—mentioned by five interviewees

1. Sponsor demands discipline.

2. He says, "If you want to have a good time, you cannot come here."

3. He was a red-blooded man, not large physically.

Sense of Humor—mentioned by five interviewees

1. He enjoys jokes.

2. He is able to laugh with pupils.

3. He is jovial.

Good Personal Appearance—mentioned by five interviewees

1. Sponsor is pleasant to look at.

2. He is good-looking, neat in appearance.

3. His clothes are neat.

CONCLUSIONS

1. An activity sponsor should live and work true to his name. Action and plenty of it given willingly characterizes a successful sponsor.

2. He will be on the job continually, working, planning, doing extra work for whatever and wherever there is need. This is the sponsor's first requisite.

3. Besides being enthusiastic he must be able to lead others aright. He must not only be bubbling over with ideas about his work but he must use the ideas wisely.

4. Although he may have enthusiasm, good judgment, and leadership, he must be firm in dealing with children in their extracurricular activities.

5. Disorder and irregularities on the part of pupils due to lack of firmness on the part of sponsors was given by 71 per cent of those interviewed as the cause of sponsors' failures.

6. A sponsor may be firm yet unless he has a proper understanding of the adolescent youth and appreciation of his problems, he lacks the sympathy necessary for success as a sponsor.

7. Standing fifth in importance in reference to a sponsor's success is his ability in solving the problems of the club and his understanding of pupils' problems.

8. Cooperation with pupils and other teachers is the next requisite of a successful sponsor. This trait occupies the same important position as the professional knowledge of the sponsor.

9. In all, there were forty traits reported, ranging in frequency from one to twenty-one. New traits can be located in exhibit "F" by the asterisks which mark those appearing for the first time. Since no new traits appeared after the twelfth interview, probably none or very few new traits will appear in subsequent interviews.

10. As the field of extracurricular activities is relatively new, and not fully explored, these conclusions are tentative.

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY OF PROBLEM CHILDREN

WALTER C. RECKLESS

The guns of science and social technology are now being trained on the problems of childhood and a concerted drive has been launched by school systems, juvenile courts, child-guidance clinics, visiting teachers, parent-teacher societies, and child-welfare leagues, to reclaim the "lost," the "difficult," the "problem" child. And psychiatrists, psychologists, and sociologists are contributing "their bit to the cause" in the form of researches in child life, personality and social adjustment, all of which possess an accumulated scientific insight for those who must deal practically with children.

THE CASE STUDY AS A "CLOSE UP"

The test of validity of those scientific techniques which have taken upon themselves the task of penetrating the mysteries of child life, is not that they should be painfully exact but that they should throw light on the problems at hand. But no matter whether the expert has a psychiatric or a sociological technique, he must approach the problem child through the avenue of the individual case study in order to get the proper focus on him. When a case is properly studied, it should be a "close up" of a person—an intimate and revealing picture of him and his background.

SOCIOLOGICAL PHOTOGRAPHY

The difficulty in the past has been that cases (of children) have been photographed only partially. The pictures have been too incomplete and too "one-sided." I mean particularly that the psychiatric emphasis has been keenly felt, although this emphasis has yielded many valuable results.

The time is now ripe for another phase of the picture to be taken. The sociological photography of children is not proposed to displace the psychiatric technique but rather to round out case studies which ideally should consist of medical and psychological examinations, a psychiatric diagnosis, and a sociological investigation.

SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL WORK

To bring up the past again, it may be said that the sociological investigation in child-guidance clinics has been conducted, heretofore, largely by social workers. While there are many points in the social background of a child which the sociologist and social worker would seek in common, the sociologist attempts to get at those factors and conditions in the total social situation which affect and control the child's behavior. He is interested, therefore, in the social participation and contacts of the child—his life in the home, neighborhood, school, play groups, and so on, in the way he is considered and treated (his social status) and the way he regards himself (his conception of self); in his attitudes toward persons and objects in his particular world; in the interplay between members of his family and the control brought to bear over him; in his response to his locale and the state of organization (or disorganization) of the neighborhood.

THE CHILD'S WORLD

The sociologist attempts, in other words, to collect data on the world of the child in order to place him in his proper setting. By the child's world we do not mean his environment. For an environment is usually thought of as a set of conditions surrounding an individual—conditions whose presence or absence can be checked off practically as superficially as on a schedule form of investigation.

One soon discovers that there are many conditions surrounding the child which do not affect his behavior at all. Even two brothers, to take a hypothetical case, living

in the same family and in the same neighborhood—in the same ostensible surroundings—have actually different “environments”; because they are not affected by the same persons, objects, or situations in the same ways.

ILLUSTRATIONS

The child's actual world, therefore, is not what is around him but what he responds to. We have dealt with a boy, twelve years of age (sound physically and mentally), whose father deserted and whose mother entertained men callers in order to support the family. We found that the boy was totally unaware of the mother's immorality. Now he is surrounded by an unwholesome condition (let us say) but is not affected by it. Consequently, it caused no harrowing mental conflicts (through the tumble of the mother *imago* off her pedestal), no loss of respect and accompanying estrangement from the parent. It set no bad example for the lad and did not undermine the efficiency of the parent to mother the boy; for she was able to stay at home and personally oversee her children during the day.

Again, a child may live in a thoroughly bad neighborhood and not respond to its demoralizing allurements. I quote from the sociological analysis of a case we studied, in which the data conclusively shows that the boy held himself aloof from the “influences” of a slum neighborhood—a neighborhood which is deteriorated; one in which the boy's family is marooned, in which Negroes are moving in and the whites out, and one from which many delinquent boys come.

As frequently happens with members of marooned families, he considered himself above the average run of boys in the neighborhood. He was not snobbish but merely did not associate with them. This conception of his own superior status isolated him from slum contacts. He took his recreation at the Y.M.C.A. and associated with the more “privileged” boys—boys from better class neighborhoods—who take advantage of the Y's offering

His unwillingness to stoop to the level of association with the boys of the locality is closely related to his strong dislike for the neighborhood. He considered himself too good for it and was anxious to vacate as soon as the house could be sold. His especial hatred for Negroes, in part at least (making allowances for traditional Southern attitudes), grew out of the realization that he had to tolerate these slum folk as neighbors. The presence of Negroes at once stimulated a dissatisfaction with his surroundings as well as a feeling of superiority to the environs. We might say that the neighborhood as a social world did not exist for the boy. His aloofness meant isolation and nonparticipation in its life. It meant that he went untouched by its sociological atmosphere.

It is obvious then that the child's world must be weeded out from among his surroundings in order to get the life-like picture of the case. When this is done, the sociological expert has him placed in a perspective which will disentangle many of the whys and wherefores of his behavior difficulties.

A SOCIOLOGICAL OUTLINE FOR THE STUDY OF PROBLEM CHILDREN

But how can one delimit the world of a child? What information should be obtained and what points should be covered? The following outline¹ may serve as a guide for the collection of the significant sociological facts in making case studies of problem children. The emphasis on the child's world shows up most strongly in sections IV A1e, *Participation and Social Status*; IV A2c, *Family Organization and Control*; IV A2d, *Family Tensions and Conflicts*, IV A3, *The Neighborhood*, and IV B3, *The Child's World* (considered subjectively).

- I. Medical examination, note particularly the developmental history, height, weight, ideal weight, defects, disorders, etc.
- II. Psychological examination. At least tests for general intelligence; special abilities, affectivity, etc., can be added *ad libitum*.
- III Psychiatric diagnosis.

¹ Part IV of the outline, "The Sociological Investigation," while organized into a sort of logical scheme, has not been the product of pure armchair speculation. On the contrary, it has been the result of considerable study of cases of problem children and has been modified and tested out progressively in accordance with our findings. It represents a set of points, which if thoroughly investigated, will uncover the significant sociological facts, and will give a well-rounded picture of the child and his world.

IV. Sociological investigation (consisting of interviews and observations in the field).

A. Objective Data

1. THE CHILD

- (a) *Impressions of the child in interviews and other places observed.* Note physique, carriage, dress, manner, behavior, responsiveness, etc., in concrete terms.
- (b) *Habits*—appetite, food preferences, amount of sweets, regularity of meals; use of stimulants, coffee, tea, cigarettes, etc.; rest, amount of sleep, sleep disturbances, dreams, sleep during the day; enuresis, nail-biting, twitching, restlessness; personal habits, excretory, cleanliness; sex, masturbatory habits, contacts with opposite sex.
- (c) *Character and disposition*—frankness, honesty, pilfering at home, disobedience, lying (pathological), regularity, laziness, temper display, tantrums, crying, teasing, sensitiveness, evasiveness, secretiveness, introspection, imaginativeness, aggressiveness, boldness, objectivity, unreliability, instability, carelessness, indifference, egocentrism, perverseness, suggestibility²
- (d) *School*—grade, amount of retardation, marks, poor subjects, good subjects, conduct in classroom and at recess, regularity of attendance, amount of truancy, impressions of teachers and principal.
- (e) *Participation and social status*—activities in the home and neighborhood, extent to which the child stays at home and in the neighborhood, membership in gangs and other groups, time spent and interest in recreational centers, type of literature and extent of reading, use of libraries; attendance at movies and interest in other forms of commercialized recreation, nicknames, stigmas, how regarded by members of family, playmates, schoolmates, and others, work outside of school, type of job, interest in making money, regularity of work.

2. THE FAMILY

- (a) *Family history and background*—age of parents at time of marriage, date of marriage, education of parents, economic status and cultural level of mother's and father's side, nationality of parents, race, where parents were reared, abnormalities on mother's and father's side such as criminality, feeble-mindedness, insanity, etc.; family mobility, number of removals, the reasons, various places and conditions under which the child was reared.

² Some of the child's dispositional and character traits will come out of the wholesale accumulation of information on the case without a direct investigation covering these points. But it is well to hold the points listed under *character and disposition* in mind in asking the mother, the school teacher, and others about the child's behavior. The particular character and dispositional traits we are interested in, in a sociological investigation, are those which show up in the way the child behaves in social situations (like "getting angry" when crossed by another) rather than in the temperamental reactions discovered through the medium of psychological tests.

- (b) *Economic status of child's family*—income and occupation of father, regularity of work, occupational mobility, unemployment, income and type of work of mother (if employed), time spent out of home by reason of work, work and income of older children, how much they contribute to family's support; standard of living of family, home ownership, installments, use of credit systems, amount of indebtedness, aid from charities or relatives.
- (c) *Family organization and control*—age of parents, parents living, separated, divorced, desertion of father, step-parents, stepchildren; number of children, ages, grade in school, work, other persons in household, boarders and relatives, position of family in neighborhood, how family looks upon other families in neighborhood, sense of superiority or inferiority, aloofness, any conflict or friction with other families in neighborhood, or in the home, appearance of the home, sleeping arrangements; family gatherings, closeness to kin, ceremonies, celebration of birthdays; table ritual, bedtime ritual, supervision of children by parents, aid in school lessons, extent to which parents play with children, devices of control, ordering and forbidding, use of punishment and rewards, reasoning and moral lessons; family pride, familism—extent to which they defend members against outside, stand up for one another, and cling together
- (d) *Family tensions and conflicts*—friction due to economic causes and money matters, to sex unadjustment, suspicion and jealousy; tensions due to the religious and cultural differences of parents, frictions due to the feeling of superiority or inferiority of one over the other, extent to which sides are taken in family, extent of favoritism shown to any of the children; nagging or teasing on the part of any member of family; conflicts due to step-parents, friction between stepsisters and stepbrothers
- (e) *Character and personality traits of members*—*Parents*: bad habits, stability, excitable, irritable, indulgent, selfishness, egocentrism, perverseness, intelligence, insight into family difficulties, outside interests, dissatisfaction and discontent, role as parents; *Children* note any behavior problems registered by children.

3. THE NEIGHBORHOOD

- (a) *Location*—social topography, nearness to railroads, presence of factories and business establishments in neighborhood; character of family dwellings.
- (b) *Character of population*—economic level, racial composition, interpenetration of races, nationality, presence of more than one nationality

- (c) *Organizing forces and agencies*—schools, churches, playgrounds, settlements; extent to which neighborhood has unity, pride; extent to which neighbors are on speaking terms, gossiping, conflict between families
- (d) *Social disorganization*—presence of crime, delinquency, gangs, commercialized vice, poverty, desertion, divorce, etc.; check with spot maps showing distribution of these problems in the local neighborhood.

B Subjective Data

1. *The story of the present difficulty and previous ones*—note extent to which child rationalizes, justifies self, puts blame on others. Note whether offense took place with other children. Note child's version of the part he played and the part others played. Note extent to which child is ashamed, is sorry, resolves not to repeat, understands the moral issue, does not want offense known. Note extent to which he is indifferent to the moral issue or knows no better. Note extent to which he is defiant, wants to get even, and is diabolical in attitude.
2. *The child's life history as told by himself*—A narrative of the principal and outstanding events in his life from as far back as he can remember until the present. Note the degree of self-interest, of imaginative painting of events, of idealization. Note the absence of detail in story, or inability to give detail, failure to recall happenings of any special importance and general indifference to his past experience.

3 The child's world^a

- (a) *His family*—What have you against your home? Do you like to stay around home? Why or why not? Did you ever feel like running away? Did you ever stay away at night? What for? How did they treat you at home? Who treats you best? Whom do you like best? Why? Whom do you like least of all? Whom do you hate most? Why? Are you treated as well as the rest of the children? If not, how so? Are you teased more than the others? Why? Do you ever feel slighted? How so? Abused? How so? What do they make you do that you do not like? What is the worst thing they make you do? What do you feel like doing when they make you do things? Are you punished more than the others? Why? Do you deserve to be punished? Can you put it over on your mother and father? When was the last time you put it over on them? What did you do? If you had your way where would you rather live than at home? What

^a The suggested questions covering the child's world as he sees it are framed purposely in language he is able to understand. The interviewer, of course, should pause to investigate thoroughly any point at which the child seems to react vividly, as for example if he should claim that he is abused at home.

would you rather do than live at home? (If home is broken.) Do you miss your father? Do you want him back? Why? (If step-parent and stepchildren are present in home, get child's reactions to them. If child is adopted, questions should be framed to get at the closeness or distance between the child and his foster parents, as well as his foster siblings; the child's longing for his former home, turmoil over nativity and paternity, and so on.)

- (b) *His neighborhood, school, and work*—Where would you rather live than on the street where your family lives at present? Why? What's the best thing about your neighborhood? What don't you like about your neighborhood? Why? What wrong goings-on do you know about in your neighborhood? What's the worst thing you know about that goes on in the neighborhood? Tell about the people who have the worst reputation in the neighborhood. Are there any bad children in the neighborhood? What do they do? What have they taught you? Who is the worst child you know of in the neighborhood? Do neighbors scold you? Have they complained about you? Do you go into the homes of neighbor children? Do you like to go? What do you do or get? Do you know the families on your street? How many are you on speaking terms with?

Do you have a hard time dragging yourself to school in the morning? What do you not like about school? What have you against your teacher or principal? What subjects do you hate the most? Which ones do you like the best? Is your teacher unfair to you? Do you think she is more interested in some others than she is in you? What trouble do you have with others in the classroom and at recess? Do they tease you or nag you at school? Do you mind? How often do you get into fights? Who is to blame? Do you like to fight? Do you pick fights or wait for a cause to fight? Which do you prefer? Can you always shift the blame? Have you ever felt as though you wanted to go to school in the morning? What would you rather do than go to school? What keeps you from playing hookey? Do you think about playing hookey every day? Is school harder for you than it is for the others? Why? Do they shame you in the classroom? When and how? Do you mind? Do they make you feel uncomfortable? Who does?

What kind of paid work do you do after school? Do you have to do it? Do you like it? What do you do it for? What do you do with the money you get? What do you spend it on? How much do you save? What are you saving for? Do you like to give money to your mother? How much do you give her? What work do they make you do around

home? What do you do to get out of it? What would you rather do? Are you made to work more than the others? Do you mind? Do they ever give you anything for working at home? If you have no regular paid work, do you pick up money by odd jobs? What are they?

- (c) *Participation, social status, and conception of role*—Do you envy any of your brothers and sisters? What for? Can they do anything you cannot do? Are you better than they are? Are they liked at home better than you? What do you fight with them about? What do you fight with your parents about? Are the others treated better than you are at home? Who is the favorite child? Why? Would you like to be the favorite child? Why? Do any of them take advantage of you? What names do they call you at home? Have you a nickname at home? How did you get it? Do they get out of patience with you? What for? Do they think you will never amount to anything? When did they tell you this? What for? What did you think about it?

How do you stand with your teacher? With your class? Who is the teacher's pet? Do you hate him? Do you envy him? Do they nag you or tease you at school? What for? What names do they call you at school in the classroom or at recess? Why do they call you these names? Can you beat the other boys of your size? Are they afraid of you? What do you do to them?

Are you the leader of your gang? If not, who is? Would you like to be in his shoes? Are you any better than he is? Do you boss your pals around? Do any of them boss you around? Can you do everything they do? Can you do anything they can't do? Are any of them envious of you or of what you have? Who thinks up all the things you do together? Do you think up things to do? Do they follow your suggestions? Are you afraid of any of your pals? Of any boy in school? Of any boys in the neighborhood?

What games do you like best? What is your favorite game? Why do you like it? Do you like the movies? What kind of movies do you like best? Why do you like them? Who is your favorite movie star? Why do you like him? How often do you go to the movies? How do you get the money to go? Do you sit through more than one show? What things excite you most in the movies? Do you like to bum around downtown? When particularly? What attracts you most downtown? How often do you go? Do you go alone or with others? Do you ever monkey around railroads? Do you like it? Are you good at hopping trains and freights? Is that the most exciting thing you ever do? Do you ever go on trips out of the city? Where to? With whom? How

often? How often have you been chased by cops? Were you afraid? Did you like it? Why? Do you like to read? Why or why not? What do you read? What is your favorite book or magazine? Why do you like it? Would you rather read than play outside or study your lessons? Do your parents think you read too much? Do you like to stay around home? Do they make you stay at home? How much? What for? Would you rather be outside? Do they have to hunt you at mealtime? Are you scolded for this? Do you ever play in a playground? How much? Do you like it better than playing on the street, in yards, or in lots? Do you ever go to a gymnasium? Do you like to go? Why? What have you against it? Are you a boy scout? Or a member of a boys' club? Do you like it? Would you want to be one? What have you against it? Do you ever go to Sunday school? How often? Why don't you go oftener? Do you like it? What would you rather do? Are you musical? Has anybody ever said you had talent? Do you like music? Do you play an instrument? Do you ever go to concerts? Do you like them?

- (d) *Dominant wishes and ambitions*—What would you like to be when you grow up? First choice? Second choice? Why these? What do your parents want you to be? Do you want to be that? Why or why not? Have you a secret ambition? What is it? Have you ever told anyone about it? What do you like to do best of all? Why? What do you like to do next best? Why? Do you ever get enough of these? Have you ever been prevented from doing them? How? If you had your own way, what would you do? What would you be? How would you live? Who would you have along with you? What do you think about during the day? Do you like to dream? What is the best dream you ever had? Do you want to go to high school? To college? Why or why not? What do you want to go for? What are some of the things you don't like to do? Why don't you like them? What is the hardest thing you have to do? What do you do to get out of things you don't like, are hard for you, or they make you do? Do you always get out of them successfully? Who would you like to be like? Why? Whom do you look up to most? Why? Who is the next person you look up to most of all? Have you ever been unhappy? Over what? How often? What is the greatest unhappiness you ever had? Have you ever been disappointed? Over what? What's the greatest disappointment you ever had? How long did it last? What did you wish for most yesterday? Do you still want it? What have you wished for hardest in your life? Did you get it? Do

you still want it? If you now could have what you wanted most of all, what would it be? What would be your second choice?

Besides the sociological investigation consisting of interviews and field observations (part IV), the medical and psychological examinations and the psychiatric diagnosis are mentioned for completeness, since a complete case study would include these reports. While certain of the more obvious points in part IV, like habits, developmental history, school or occupation and so on would probably be touched on in medical, psychological, and psychiatric reports, most of the points cover purely sociological information.

OBJECTIVE AND SUBJECTIVE DATA

To be sure, a certain part of the total sociological information on a case consists of surface facts, readily accessible to observation and questioning and in some instances checkable at the very sources. On the other hand, a considerable portion of the desired information possesses a large subjective content and reveals the individual's version of his own affairs, that is, his slant on his own situation. The former type of facts may be classed as objective; the latter, as subjective data. Although the points covered by the two classes of data cannot always be investigated in separate compartments, they are separated in the outline for emphasis and clearness (see sections IV A and IV B). The subjective data are perhaps the most revealing of all. For they disclose the ways in which the child responds to his "surroundings" and consequently help to delimit his world and the conditions which affect him.

DIRECTIONS AND PROCEDURE

In making a case study and putting the outline into use,⁴ we assume that the sociologist gets the case from a juvenile

⁴ The outline, of course, must be used flexibly as a guide to secure a complete picture of the child and not rigidly as a schedule for which the points are covered in the brief and most stereotyped form.

court, a school, or a social agency and that a summary of the existing record on the child is taken at the time the case is turned over. We also assume that the case is cleared through the confidential exchange (or central bureau) in order to gain access to any other record which may exist on the child or his family among the rest of the social agencies of the city.

THE FIRST INTERVIEW WITH THE CHILD

At the first contact with the child, the story of his present and past difficulties (IV B1 of the outline) is obtained. The child expects to be quizzed on this score and will usually "open up" when he learns that what he says will not be held against him and that he is not being scolded or blamed. The story of his life (or the high spots) as he remembers it, is also readily obtainable at the first sitting (IV B2). This last move helps to create rapport between interviewer and subject and very often reveals very significant facts. If the first interview can be pushed further, some of the more superficial information can be secured (see sections IV A1 a,b,d,e of the outline). After the first interview the case then can profitably be sent for medical and psychological examination (I and II).⁵

THE FIRST INTERVIEW WITH THE MOTHER

The investigator next goes to the home to interview the mother.⁶ At this time again he opens with questions about the child's present and past problems. The mother likewise expects to be asked about these points. Sections IV A1 a,b,c,d,e can be checked through the mother. And the superficial facts on the family (IV A2 b,c) and her

⁵ Some elasticity in procedure must be used here also. The medical and psychological examination may both be run just after the first interview. Or they may be run on different days, according to the circumstances.

⁶ Some child guidance clinics have the practice of bringing the mother to the office for interviewing. The claim is made that a more professional attitude can be maintained and, at the same time, the investigator does not run the risk of having the interview disturbed. The disadvantages of interviewing at the home are offset, we feel, by the advantages. It is often difficult for the mother to get away. She is more at ease in the home. The investigator is frequently able to see the family in action, see how the mother treats and corrects the children, how the children treat and respond to one another and, so forth. If any of the children happen to be a disturbing factor, they can be sent away.

views on the neighborhood can be noted. While the investigator is at the home, he makes observations on the mother, on other members of the family with whom he comes in contact, on any revealing family scenes, on the home itself, and also takes the opportunity to browse around the neighborhood to make notations on various conditions (IV A3 a,b,c).

THE SECOND INTERVIEW WITH THE CHILD

In the second interview with the child (providing the first went satisfactorily and covered the points mentioned), the child's reactions and attitudes towards things can be got as well as his private life—his secret practises and ambitions, his hidden feelings, hatreds, sensitivities and so on (see sections IV B3 a,b,c,d).

THE SECOND INTERVIEW WITH THE MOTHER

The investigator again returns to the mother and checks the statements of the child with her intimate knowledge. Then a drive is made to procure the facts on the inner life of the family as well as on the "family skeletons" (see sections IV A2 a,d,e of the outline). On this occasion, likewise, further notes can be taken on the home, members of the family, and the neighborhood.

OTHER INTERVIEWS

If there are certain questions still calling for investigation, the child may be called in once more. And the father and an older child in the family may possibly have to be interviewed. The investigator by this time is familiar enough with the child's background to get the most out of an interview with the school teacher. His first stop is at the principal's office, where he looks up the school record and finds out what the principal knows of the child and family. The teacher is then accessible on request and her observations on the child's behavior in the classroom (and at recess) are recorded. If a psychiatric examination is

available, the child at this time could profitably be sent to the psychiatrist for diagnosis, with (or without) a forwarded summary of the case as it stands.

THE FINAL CHECK UP

After the psychiatric report is received, the whole case should be read and deficiencies in the data noted. A final interview with the child and one with the mother is usually necessary to clear up certain doubtful points and to get information on others that may have been neglected. With the final check up the case is considered complete as far as study is concerned.

RECORDING THE DATA

The sociological interviews should be recorded as nearly verbatim as possible. Ideally, of course, each interview should be taken down stenographically but this is not always possible. The interviewer, who must work unassisted, can train himself to make fairly accurate recordings with only a little of the overtones lost. Interviews should be written up shortly after their occurrence. And it is quite important to capture the vocabulary of the person in these unassisted recordings.

IMPRESSIONS SEPARATELY RECORDED

The investigator's impressions and observations of each person interviewed are very significant. These notes should be taken on the child at least during the first and second interviews and on other persons at the initial contact. Impressions (how the person appeared and acted) should be kept on sheets separate from those on which the interview is written up and should be recorded in concrete instead of technical language. If the child squirms, pulls at his cap, glances away, gets up and sits down frequently, this behavior should be put down as such rather than "child restless." And so with the observations on the child at home or in play groups (if the

investigator happens on him) and on the child's home and neighborhood. Technical terms should be avoided in making entries on the record forms. And most certainly concepts should not be substituted for anything told in the actual interviews.

THE VALUE OF CONCRETE RECORDING

A concretely recorded case has permanent research value for other students interested in case studies, whereas the technically recorded case does not enable another student or expert to get behind the concepts to the actual thing said, the actual behavior, the actual situation. And besides the technical record may represent what the investigator has read into the data.

THE SOCIOLOGICAL SET-UP

The question may arise as to where, at the present time, cases of problem children can be studied sociologically. There seems to be no opportunity for running cases sociologically in the usual child-guidance clinic. For the popular opinion is that the field investigation of the trained social worker, the interviews of the psychiatrist, plus the "medicals and psychologicals," are quite sufficient for the full understanding of the child's problem. In the larger child-guidance clinics where research is fostered, a sociologist on the research staff would be enabled to study cases according to the procedure mentioned above.

But perhaps the most satisfactory way to study problem children sociologically is through the research outlets of departments of sociology in universities. Graduate research assistants can be put into the field as interviewers and investigators under the supervision of a member of the departmental staff. The cooperation of the juvenile court and other child-caring institutions can be obtained and a selected number of cases can be turned over for study. This number should not constitute a "load" and should not be so large as to interfere with the detailed interview-

ing and intensive investigation. A report summarizing the facts of the case with suggested recommendations can be returned to the initiating agency.

The psychological, medical, and psychiatric examinations under this plan of private research should constitute a separate service on each case. The cooperation of the university medical school and psychological department, of local hospitals, medical clinics, or child-guidance stations (if one exists in the city) may be sought and these examinations secured for a small case load.

THE VANDERBILT PLAN

For example, at Vanderbilt University, the department of sociology uses its graduate research assistants for interviewers and investigators, clears its cases through the Vanderbilt University Hospital for medical, psychological, and psychiatric examinations, and has the cooperation of the juvenile court and other agencies. Both the interviewing and investigating on each case is done by the research assistant to whom it is assigned. The combination of interviewer and investigator has been found to work particularly well in making detailed sociological case studies, for it puts the expert in closer touch with the case than the system of having the interviewing and field investigation done by separate individuals. When the case is ready to be heard, it is presented in clinical conference before the supervisory members of the departmental staff and all the other research assistants making case studies. The final check up on each case, therefore, is guided by the discussions and suggestions of all those who compose this sociological research clinic

THE HOME ROOM AS A SOCIAL UNIT

D. H. PIERCE

There are many phases of present-day society which show marked lack of integration. This condition is conducive to local misunderstanding.

In politics we may not be so bitter as formerly but we seem hopelessly at odds in our ward, state, and national politics, as well as in our international relationships. Peace conferences and ship building go on simultaneously.

"Prohibition" is an illustration, whichever side of the argument one takes, of our failure to get together on principles. One really has to choose the particular brand of crime with which he will align himself. On one hand the man who employs a bootlegger chooses his own way, and feels responsibility to no one, whether technically violating the law or not. He is unsocial in his sociability. He has no regard for the effects of his crimes on the morals of other people, as they relate to profits, penalties, murder, and "hi-jacking." Simply, he wants to do a thing, relies on a highly developed program of organized crime (in bootlegging) and neglects all social responsibilities that may result. That man and his associates are interested in only the narrowest phases of integration. On the whole, the good of society is completely neglected even though there is abundant evidence of dissatisfaction with the method of enforcement.

As a matter of fact, at no time has any one of our amendments been equally enforced in all communities in all parts of the country at the same time. Whatever the sought outcome, it can only happen after all communities have formed attitudes and behavior patterns to produce those outcomes.

Aside from the social aspects of politics and the law, we have great lack of integration in religion—not mere differ-

ences, but burning passions of revolutionary difference. A boy in a community may grow up to hate every one except those of his own faith; his father may be made miserable because he is or is not a Republican and the political affiliation may take on religious significance, or vice versa. There are, however, principles on which people can get together, as well as principles over which they become estranged, and the former seem much more desirable and worth working for.

The "World Series" of baseball promote social understanding and social relationships, hence, integration. Aside from "crabbing," which after all is an expression of difference that has narrow limits, there is little variation from smooth-running of the game. Rules are printed, umpires preside, the "Czar" is in the stand, but the real governing force of the game is common assent. All want to win and superior team-play results. During the season the game goes on everywhere in the United States with accepted principles unquestioned. I have noted the tolerance that is generally extended in a community to the town-liar and the village half-wit. This tolerance is based not on the fact that no defects exist or that there are no individual differences among the people of the community, but rather on a knowledge of the faults as well as certain virtues. Tolerance of this kind is a basis for good community social relationships.

The school, by trial and error, is the institution upon which the burden of preparing children for a more satisfactory society falls. As to our general objective we want to find in and after school life that children are not only individually efficient, but group-wise efficient as well. Emphasis should not be separately placed on either the group or the individual. The realization of this objective will perhaps require some kind of balance between the applications of psychology and sociology as applied in the schools. Perhaps we need to know more about the proper

territories and interrelationships between educational psychology and educational sociology. It is to be hoped, however, that the younger of the two sciences will not fall into such excesses as were the outcome of educational psychology following the war.

The school is subject to disintegrating conditions. Our social program in schools prevents social relationships. Mere running through a corridor of a great school with 3,000 or more other pupils is so thin in social relationship value that it tends as much away from community social values as towards the desired objective.

In American public schools we promote children frequently. There are constant changes apart from the regular promotions. Some days, interruptions of the home-room groups keep doors on the swing and pupils and teachers running. We surely have much organization machinery, and you can fairly hear it creak. Our transfer of pupils sometimes reaches two thirds of the average total enrollment for a given semester, and besides, pupils lose a day or two in shifting from one school to another, or a week or two as between cities.

The complexity of the regular program of studies is further involved with such minor distractions as interruptions because of a multiplicity of reports, holidays, celebrations, milk servings, sales, examinations, treatments by the nurse, physician, dentist, psychiatrist, psychologist, dental hygienist; further interruptions by workmen, janitors, and supervisors. This complexity of interruptions tends to destroy the home-room integration over any continuous or prolonged period. No sooner do we have the situation in hand so that knowledge, attitudes, and behavior patterns are set up than the term is at an end. We have a vacation and then a new set of teachers with a new influx of pupils. Summer schools further tend to break up this weak organization. No attempt is made to discount the value of a number of organizations provided they fall within the

home-room jurisdiction or do not conflict with its integrating principle.

Once we had one class; it was a whole school. Later we housed a number of classes as a school unit. Now we have by the same sign special classes or groups with so great a variety that there is scarcely a city that could yield a new type. There are the hospital classes (tubercular and cardiac); those for speech defects, sight conservation, nutrition, posture, for cripples, pediculosis, feeble-minded, gifted, opportunity, which is "anything else but." We have fast and slow classes, X Y Z classes. There are "track-plan" groups. There are those for the manual type, those for the mentally apt, and I have not named the half of them with many more in the offering. It would seem that we are drawing away from natural group relations such as prevail in a community and which tend toward its progress.

I am reminded of Inglis's list of subjects that held in certain of the old academies. There were included in it seventy-three different subjects. As an extreme contrast to this I am reminded of the proposal of a foremost theorist for but six general headings for the whole elementary curriculum. We have perhaps come back to the other extreme of fewer subjects for several reasons. General mathematics has apparently made its place, also, so has general science. We are also tending to teach just plain English rather than grammar, composition, and spelling separately—the principle of justification here is no longer on subjects but perhaps on content and technique.

It may follow that the best way to "get over" the practice of democracy lies in more activities with fewer names for the subjects taught. Actual experiences would not be decreased in general social science which takes the place of a half dozen phases of history, besides civics, economics, constitution, government, etc. Probably the first step in the solution of the problem is based on the understanding

of the person in charge of the home room. That person must be closely identified with the problem, must be intimately a part of the group, must be given time, even several semesters with the same pupils for one hour or more daily. The social relationship of the community from this school democracy would have most helpful possibilities.

There is a very different principle in practice. The original interest in the head of a school was that he teach, later that he direct teaching. Now he does no teaching and he is little concerned with it directly or otherwise. His miscellaneous duties consume his time and interest. The direct relationship between the head and his teachers is broken by the entrance of the supervisor. The principal delegated to a school as its educational head has been forced to relinquish his interest in teaching. First he deferred to supervisors of drawing, music, penmanship. Now supervision has been expanded to include almost everything in the course of study.

We say we introduce democracy in the classroom. We say that here is where the great Americanization process goes on. It perhaps does in undepartmentalized early grades, and to a less degree in the upper ones.

Sectioning of classes is based on pure disintegration, whatever other values it may have. Homogeneous grouping is narrowly selecting pupils on one or at most a few of very many traits that pupils possess. It is as socializing as an Indian caste system. We might be equally justified in segregating on race or sex—both of which are silly in the schools of a democracy.

Out of sectioning comes a remarkable possibility for children being moved about and away from their center group if they ever have a social setting. In a single semester one child may have as many as fifteen different classifications, rare, of course, but possible. Each move usually provides a new teacher or at least a new group. If this happens to a troublesome, indifferent pupil, he might be almost

always on the transfer, and he of all pupils can least afford it. However, it is with such pupils that these numerous adjustments frequently are made. One thoughtless corrective for such a boy might be to create a new atmosphere, give him social contacts; he might be made a member of five clubs, and thereby complete his misfit. We must not discredit the idea of clubs, any number of them, provided the youngster has first something to tie to. I have in mind the home room on a long-time basis as something to tie to. Since classifications of the kind referred to are mostly on the mental basis, I would here bear in mind what Thorndike says regarding the fact that differences in individual intelligence vary in amount rather than in degree. Then it would be well to remember that traits are not easily measurable and are very numerous.

It seems to me that we are divided into two schools on classification: (1) the care of the gifted child on one hand with the acceptance of the hopelessness of defectives, and (2) on the other hand the care of defectives and slow pupils now in school society, rather than at a later date in adult society when it will be more expensive in time and money and less effective.

It would seem that both these schools of thought, or viewpoints, are concerned with correctives (a) provision for early, thorough training and later supervision or (b) later provision wholly through suppression in institutions. Any scheme which provides for the extreme cases only or neglects them is rather a weak gesture considered in the large, with reference to numbers and more than the immediate generation.

The benefits of science ought not to be withheld from defectives of any kind, and the value of science can be largely realized even in the classroom by the classroom teacher. We need special clinics, of course, for they are humane, and give the only educational opportunities that some children get, but it does not follow that all who

diverge from the normal mentally, physically, emotionally, or socially are to be segregated. It may be that in the majority of cases the social values of the original community group realizable through group congregation are more valuable than the individual or small group advantages from segregation on highly specialized classifications.

Take the unit of 1,000 pupils born in a locality at about the same time. Some of these members are eliminated at once by death, institutional feeble-mindedness, etc. Of these 1,000 children only ten, we will say, will be graduated from the university. The greater number drop out from the seventeen-year school period, between the sixth and ninth years, and the extent of this divergence in amount of school training is a serious obstacle to the hope of these one thousand pupils.

How can a boy who has failed in the sixth grade, left school, and had indifferent results against great odds get a favorable impression, without more means of understanding than he possesses from early grade contacts, from the boy who remained to complete his seventeenth or even twentieth year of study partly or wholly at the expense of the state? How can the eliminated boy understand the college man's comparative ease and security, or his later arrival at a lucrative competency with apparently little effort? To state it the other way around, how can the boy who has all these years in school and college appreciate the viewpoint of the boy who failed the sixth grade or just left it? It is not essential that both boys have the same school experience, but it is necessary if they are to understand each other that they have more prolonged contacts with each other.

These boys traditionally misjudge each other. Capital and labor illustrate this point. And now, even if capital and labor are becoming integrated on items such as hours and scales, it is not on a basis of community understanding, for they have simply shifted their differences so that these

settle on other groups, the white-collared teaching profession, for instance, being one of those groups.

One boy grows up to complain of the high cost of prisons and other institutions. They are for his classmates, in part, of course. Institutions are greatly increasing their enrollments. They are maintained for defectives, normals and abnormals, the insane, the sane, and the "too sane." Most of the inmates were once school pupils. Perhaps more attention to the school side of it then might have cut the cost of institutions. We may yet have to make that decision. As a matter of record City D voted on two bond issues; one for a jail carried, the other for a high school was defeated. Both were thought necessary and City D chose to carry on retention and doubtful remedial measures rather than to promise preventive ones.

If there are ten members of a society of which two are in institutions for the insane, two in prison, two in reformatories, and the other four still on the outside, it is obvious that from the four there must come maintenance for all ten. Not only must each man of the four support himself but one and one-half others as well. Also the crimes of these confined are against those outside, scarcely offenses against those domiciled with them. The mind sets of the individuals are framed as they find themselves, either inside or out. Those outside urge capital punishment; those inside insist on parole or pardon. The more one group struggles in one direction, the more the other strains in the opposite.

If boys understood each other and continued to do so in later years despite their differences, would they get better results in adult life? Or if they are segregated only with their kind because of like traits, would they develop more efficiency, thereby doing better for themselves and for society as a whole? If a whole school population grows up as a community in school, are the pupils any better fitted for the interrelationships in that community or some other then or later?

If society can integrate itself, as proposed in the community classroom, and be stabilized with such additions of enrichment as may be added afterward, we will be retaining values and tending to a whole group practice.

What is the most useful immediate need of a boy? Can the school make the setting so that he can acquire it? Well, I suggest that everyone, understanding his group, with the sympathies that go with it, has a rock bottom on which to construct relationships then or later. I have in mind the home-room relationships.

The home room furnishes a basis for integration. There are certain requirements that make that highly desirable because the need is not generally met elsewhere, as stated earlier. Pupils know little about their fathers, even their mothers, who are now working in increasing numbers. They see their brothers and sisters frequently at the dinner hours, possibly oftener. They have a multiplicity of explorations, tryouts, three-track promotions, sectioning, clubs, and they scarcely know any teacher well. They live in schools housing from 300 to 6,000 and have a corridor acquaintanceship with hundreds, any of whom may represent a study, or social, or athletic acquaintanceship, but of all these they know few, if any, well.

Now if a pupil does not know well his father, mother, sisters, brothers, teachers, or fellows, I would propose that there be one place in the schools where a relationship that has some enduring factors be set up and that the relationship be little disturbed.

Two views are expressed regarding the special classes, or some of them. (Of course some are just humane.) One is that through individual opportunity the practice is democratic; the other that because it destroys social unity it is undemocratic since it only unifies or associates by selection on a basis of certain limited traits of individuals.

The schools suffer disintegration due to the influence of the special class.

In private schools does the selective process that creates them prevent democracy in practice? Persons who are segregated are likely to get narrow viewpoints. Could the attitude of New Englanders towards the rest of the nation, or of Pennsylvanians in small hamlets, or of certain Swedish inhabitants in Minnesota, or French-Canadians on the back roads of Quebec be said to be provincial? Perhaps these illustrate adult parallels of the special classes in schools. If in school there is produced a community in its entirety with elements of relationship to other communities, then wholly dominant parallels to provincialism as those mentioned could scarcely be looked for.

In the past integration has been "lockstep." "The gifted have been neglected." In truth the average have been taught at, the dull dragged, and the gifted dangled. Administration has been quite in ignorance of individual instruction

Mere love of organization, mere devotion to the machinery of system ought not to be final guide in determining the merit of special class organization.

In two or three decades we will have a new crop of citizens. By gravity or a social policy of *laissez faire* alone they will amount to something, by considerate planning of their programs they may amount to much more. We shall have to improve our past method of school administration for we have, to a pronounced degree, merely followed the fashion outside our schools. We have aped the college, the Latin grammar schools, catered to the college entrance requirements, and embraced a succession of European ideas, quite as unsuited for us as the present Danish calisthenics for its muscle-bound adults. We shall have to get back to the local child in his own group setting. It is time to treat John Doe's boy as we find him and in regard to what he may become.

Teachers are not free to develop advantageously their classes on the home-room basis. There are extensive for-

mal requirements to meet, and they protest at what they regard as further burdens in the home-room organization.

If teachers were not held technically accountable for the achievement of almost the impossible within their groups; if teachers were permitted to use resourcefulness and expand their personalities; if they were free from the domination of unintelligent, or misguided, or unfair supervisors, either general supervisors from the central office or principals, that is, if they were judged by persons capable of making judgments on scientifically measured results in terms of the social, democratic good of a community in process and in promise, there would be little protest on the part of teachers who took the "mill run" of say thirty or thirty-five boys and girls between the ages of seven and seventeen, and carried on the integration process in a home-room organization.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

EDITORIAL NOTE *It is designed to make this department a clearing house for (1) information about current research projects of interest to educational sociology, and (2) for ideas with reference to research methods and techniques in this field. Readers are urged to report projects and suggestions as to methods of research. This department desires to encourage and stimulate cooperation in research*

TECHNIQUES FOR THE STUDY OF CHILD BEHAVIOR

The following is an outline of a forthcoming research study on "Techniques for the Study of Child Behavior," which will be of considerable interest to educational sociologists. The investigation was carried on by Dorothy Swaine Thomas and associates at the Institute of Child Welfare Research of which Ruth Andrus is acting director. The study will probably be published in December, 1928.

I. *Introduction*, by Ruth Andrus.

II. *The Problem, and Its Setting*, by Dorothy Swaine Thomas.

The emphasis is placed on the need of developing techniques for recording behavior objectively. We are not yet in a position where studies in the correlation of various physical and mental states with overt behavior are possible, because we have not at hand adequate methods of obtaining data. Our method in this study is to split up behavior into certain elements which can be recorded reliably and objectively, and which can be related to the whole. Our field of interest is especially the social psychology of the child, and our techniques are therefore directed towards a study of behavior as related to persons and things.

III. *A Technique for the Study of Activities and Interests of Children*, by Dorothy Swaine Thomas and Margaret Barker, assisted by Alma Perry and Ruth Hubbard.

This technique requires the tracing of the progress of a given child over a given period of time, indicating contacts with things and with persons. Records are in terms of gross activity (space covered) and time spent on various types of activities, social and material. About twenty such records are available for each of twenty children. The records indicate patterns of activity and changes in social behavior over a period of time. Special attention is given to the reliability of this technique. Extended consideration of this is possible as the records were taken by two observers simultaneously.

IV. The Situational Technique in Studying Social Behavior.

A *A Study of Spontaneous Social Groups*, by Ruth Hubbard.

A social group is defined as the simultaneous presence of two or more children in the same activity. Data were collected showing the time each child joined and left a group, and the nature of the group. The relative group participation of each child is computed as is also his relative participation with each other child. Reliability of the technique is discussed.

B. *A Study of Physical Contacts Among Children*, by Alice Loomis.

The physical contacts of children are recorded over a period of time, and analyzed in terms of the child as the subject, or originator, of the contact, and the child as object of the contact. Important personality differences emerge. The reliability of the technique is considered.

C. *A Study of Laughter Situations Among Children*, by Alice Gregg, Ethel Linton, and Marion Miller.

Every situation in which laughter occurs is recorded. The records include a brief description of the situation, the names of the children immediately "exposed" to the situation, and the names of those responding by either laughing or smiling. A laughter index is computed for

each child in terms of the ratio of response to exposure. The situations producing laughter are analyzed and classified.

D. *A Study of the Social-Recreational Home Background, as Revealed by a Questionnaire of Parents' Activities*, by Hally Flack.

V. *The Use of the Psychological Test Situation as a Means of Studying Personality Differences in Children*.

Stenographers hidden behind a screen recorded all incidental conversation and behavior of the child during the psychological examination. Students recorded instances of resistance, demand for new materials made by the child, and favorable response by the examiner.

A. *Resistance*, by Janet Fowler Nelson.

Resistance was studied in terms of the type of test resisted, the situation immediately preceding the resistance, and also in terms of individual differences among the children. Relationships between age, intelligence, and resistance are indicated. The technique of meeting resistance is also analyzed.

B. *Reaction Time*, by Janet Fowler Nelson.

Reaction time was analyzed by tests and for individual differences.

C. *Commendation*, by Janet Fowler Nelson.

Commendation or favorable response by the examiner was analyzed with respect to the test and individual differences among children.

D. *Rapport*, by Mary Herben.

The conditions making for rapport between the examiner and child are analyzed and discussed in detail.

E. *A Study of the Reliability of Recording Language and Behavior*, by Lulu-Marie Jenkins.

SOCIAL SCIENCE ABSTRACTS

A complete staff of specialists have begun work this fall on *Social Science Abstracts*. The journal will appear monthly and it is expected that 20,000 abstracts a year will be printed. The first number will be issued after the

first of next year. The fields covered will be: cultural anthropology, economics, history, human geography, political science, sociology, and statistics. Relevant material from other fields such as law will be included.

The editorial offices of *Social Science Abstracts* have been established in Fayerweather Hall, Columbia University. The location is made possible through the generosity of Columbia University.

At its April meeting, the Social Science Research Council appointed the following committee charged with full administrative and financial responsibility for establishing *Social Science Abstracts*: Dr. Isaiah Bowman, American Geographical Society, chairman; Dr. Davis R. Dewey, Massachusetts Institute of Technology; Dr. Ellsworth Faris, University of Chicago; Dr. Carlton J. H. Hayes, Columbia University; Dr. Frederic A. Ogg, University of Wisconsin; Dr. Frank A. Ross, Columbia University; and Dr. Clark Wissler, American Museum of Natural History.

Dr. F. Stuart Chapin, University of Minnesota, was appointed editor-in-chief for the first year. A staff of associate and assistant editors and specialists are now at work gathering materials and testing out, in practice abstracting, the preliminary draft of a system of classification for the social sciences. This scheme of classification is the result of careful work on the part of twenty-one specialists in the social sciences who have studied the problem for the past three months.

Meetings of a group of international specialists on abstracting in the social sciences were held in Paris in June and in Geneva in July. Dr. Chapin was in Europe last spring and summer officially to represent *Social Science Abstracts* at these conferences and to make European connections for *Social Science Abstracts*.

Another statement will appear before the first number of the journal is issued. This notice will contain more specific information, such as the rate of subscription, the classification system, etc.

NEW YORK RESEARCH BUREAU'S STUDIES

A number of the major studies of the Research Bureau of the Welfare Council of New York City have been pushed on toward completion during the summer and some of the reports of its investigations will soon be made public.

In the Health Inventory preliminary reports have been drafted for all of the thirteen fields covered by the study. The findings on three sections of the Health Inventory—those dealing with baby health, preschool and school-child service—have been accepted by the Health Division Council and the findings in the fields of maternity, health examination, and venereal disease service have been received by the Health Division Council. It is expected that the drafts in all of the remaining sections will be circulated for criticism and suggestions early in the autumn.

It has become evident that to obtain a maximum return from the work done on the inventory in any particular field, it will be necessary to go beyond its original scope as a listing of actual services rendered by agencies and a quantitative statement of the volume of service and to include also some mention of all the factors that may be involved in the problem, such as hospital provision, private medical practice, and auxiliary health measures, as well as surveys and projects under way. It is not intended, of course, that a complete study of the whole health problem in any field should be undertaken. The aim is to indicate the important elements of the problem so that the relation of the existing health services to the community's total need for them may be suggested, even though not evaluated.

The field work in the Settlement's Study is more than three quarters finished, but it is already apparent that the findings will constitute a gold mine of program-making material for the agencies in this field.

The Study on Boys' Work in Brooklyn, undertaken by the Research Bureau in coöperation with the Boys' Work

Council of Brooklyn, has attempted to open up the field of study by:

- (1) assembling some underlying facts about the community life in Brooklyn.
- (2) making an inventory of community resources for boys.
- (3) studying a few small districts intensively, and
- (4) collecting from about 1700 public-school boys some expressions of their interests and views on recreation and home life as a basis for club programs.

The first two parts of this study are nearing completion and considerable progress has been made on parts three and four.

The census of the Chronic Sick undertaken early in the summer as part of the Study of Chronic Illness has thus far brought in data of illuminating detail concerning some 20,000 chronic patients. The description of facilities for the care of such patients to be included in the report of the study already covers more than 210 hospitals, nursing organizations, homes for the aged, and almshouses.

In the Study of Income and Expenditure of Social Agencies data has been completed for more than 250 organizations and work is well along on the data for 100 additional agencies. Only six organizations have declined to give the information needed for this study, but there is hope that even these will cooperate before this particular project is completed.

In connection with this and the other studies the Research Bureau of the Council has been in touch with more than 760 social agencies according to Dr. Neva R. Dear-dorff, Director of the Bureau, and in nearly every case has found a friendly welcome and genuine cooperation.

Among the other projects of the Research Bureau are the compilation of a guide to the Welfare Statistics of New York and the preparation of dependency indexes.

BOOK REVIEWS

Interpretation of Educational Measurements, by TRUMAN LEE KELLEY. World Book Company, 1927, xii + 363 pages.

Dr. Kelley's volume has been in the hands of schoolmen long enough to make an estimate of its real usefulness possible, and is not yet old enough to make a review stale or superfluous.

This is a singularly stimulating and singularly irritating volume, and one which shows conspicuously the shortcomings of educational thought when not supplied with the sociological point of view. The very careful and exceedingly well-thought-out analyses of the functions of achievement tests, the qualities of effective tests, and the limitations of test-scores as evidence on which to guide or aid pupils, falls short of being entirely satisfactory because of the almost entire absence of attention to sociological considerations and points of view. This is conspicuously shown by the absence of attention to the content of the curriculum. The assumption is made, in all diagnoses and diagnostic methods described in this book, that the existing curriculum is valid without reservations, and that it is not to be changed. A further striking case of the harmful absence of sociological considerations lies in the treatment of all aims or purposes to be achieved as basally individual rather than social.

This absence of sociological considerations limits very strongly the value of the outstanding contribution which this volume ought to have made to educational practice. The lists of ratings of tests and of rated tests classified and graded, fall short just at the point where they ought to be most explicit. The question of "relevance" is not raised at all. Nowhere in the lists is the question raised as to whether the tests measure abilities that are desirable outcomes of education, or whether they measure these abilities in ways indicating whether the abilities exist under life situations. A typical example is on pages 333 and 334, where tests in high-school physics achievement are listed. Thurstone's test, which is a prevocational test, showing both engineering aptitude and the acquisition of physics information and skills used in engineering, is treated as if on a par with the strictly informational and general tests devised by Camp and Chapman. Camp's tests, which are organized on the assumption that the existing curricula are valid, are treated only on their merits as pieces of technical test building. The question as to whether a test favors or discourages or penalizes attention to the social phases and new developments in its field, is nowhere taken up; but for the sociologist this is most important. Camp's physics tests, to use the cases already cited, leave the pupil whose teacher has directed his inter-

ests strongly to modern physics—radio, X rays, etc.—at a disadvantage as against the one whose teacher has made him linger on stodgy numerical problems in acceleration and Ohm's Law.

To offset this lack, Kelley has given us the long-needed presentation in convenient form of the extent of overlap between "intelligence" and achievement. We now have psychological and statistical evidence to make still stronger the sociologists' position that it is equipment rather than intelligence that is most useful in determining how to place a child to best advantage in school.

It is rather unfortunate that Kelley has seen fit to include in his book a retreatment of those general elementary statistical procedures that are in common use among educators. This breaks into the continuity of the treatment, and, in view of the many excellent manuals now published, is superfluous. He must be condemned for having complicated the matter by insisting upon using his own system of symbols. This system is emphatically not in general use, despite Kelley's assertion that it is; and it is about as easy a system to become confused in use as has ever been devised.

It is perhaps too much to expect a test expert and statistician to work sociologically also; but we should have been rendered much more and better service if Dr. Kelley had not stopped short of the completion of the task. The omission of sociological relevances makes his list of tests a most inadequate guide, despite its valuable information on reliability and mechanical features of the various tests. The first portion of the book, explaining how to use measurements to advantage, is similarly insufficient for lack of the same point of view. But the volume is serving a good purpose within its limitations, and, in the hands of schoolmen with enough sociological training to supplement it where needed, has already proved useful.

STEPHEN G. RICH

The Child and Society, by PHYLLIS BLANCHARD. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1928, xi + 369 pages.

The Child and Society is a study of the socialization of the child's original impulses through his participation in family, play group, school, and other groups within the community, and through his assimilation of patterns presented by such agencies as the press, literature, and the movie.

The book is based on a frankly behavioristic conception of original nature. There is an interesting discussion of the relationship of individual differences to socialization. The secondary teacher will find the presentation of adolescence particularly helpful. Dr. Blanchard sees adolescence, not so much as a physical crisis, as a problem of social adjustment, and looks upon the "adolescent flare-up," so prominently

featured in the recent literature of adolescence, as a product of our age rather than as inherent in puberty itself.

She raises the question as to how much individualization—deviation from the accepted social patterns—is compatible with successful social adjustment, and treats with considerable insight the genesis of undesirable behavior patterns, their relationship to juvenile delinquency, and their adjustment by the child guidance clinic.

The book should be useful as a text in a one-semester normal-school course in educational sociology, or as collateral reading in other courses. Topics for discussion and papers, with bibliographies, are appended to each chapter. Dr. Blanchard is psychologist at the Philadelphia Child Guidance Clinic, and instructor in the Graduate School of Medicine at the University of Pennsylvania. She is known to many as the author of *The Adolescent Girl*.

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Dr. John J. Tigert has resigned as United States Commissioner of Education and accepted the presidency of the University of Florida. He took up his work in Florida in September. Florida is to be congratulated on securing the services of Dr. Tigert.

The Department of Superintendence of the N.E.A. holds its next meeting at Cleveland, Ohio. Watch for an announcement of the New York University banquet program which will appear in a later issue.

Mr. J. L. Archer of Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn, Alabama, joins the staff of the department of educational sociology as an instructor. He will complete his work for a doctorate in educational sociology.

The Workers or Labor College educational movement has received in the past summer significant recognition. The Holyoke and the Temple Schools are attracting wide attention. Both of these experiments were founded recently. Such institutions will offer a wholesome outlet for the workers' desire for spiritual and cultural growth and development.

Professor James Q. Dealey, head of the department of social and political science of Brown University retired from active teaching at the close of the past school year. Professor Dealey is one of the honored men of sociology in the United States. He has been a constructive writer and an active member of the American Sociological Society being one of the notable ex-presidents of that organization.

The Platoon School, a publication of the National Association for the Study of the Platoon or Work-study-play School Organization, is starting its second year as a quarterly publication, the issues coming out in April, June, October, and December. The June number devoted to "Special Activities" is an attractive piece of work. The editorial offices are at 532 Seventeenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Professor Ellsworth Lowry of Indiana State Normal School, Indiana, Pennsylvania, has been elected to the position of director of extension courses for teachers at Penn State.

Superintendent Frank G. Pickell of Montclair, New Jersey, has been elected to membership in the National Council of Education. Superintendent Pickell gave a course in educational administration in the summer session of New York University.

Mr. W. Spader Willis, principal of the Newark Normal School, Newark, New Jersey, has retired after a tenure of more than forty-three years.

The development of the Nursery School Movement in America is clearly shown by the eighth annual opening of the Nursery Training School of Boston.

The Boston school represents an interesting aspect in education, in

that its primary interest is in preparing artistic teachers of little children.

This school, under the direction of Miss Abigail A. Eliot, enrolls each year twenty young women of junior-college standing. Three separate courses of study are offered: a two-year course to students who have completed two years of college work, a one-year course to students who have received their baccalaureate degrees, and special part-time courses to those students qualified by experience or training.

This year five full-time and two part-time students are returning. Nine new students, three of whom are college graduates will enter September seventeenth. The registration is completed by students enrolled for practice work under an arrangement with Boston University and the Lesley Kindergarten School. These students will be enrolled for theory courses in sociology, psychology, and the techniques of teaching in Harvard University, Simmons College, Boston University, and the Nursery Training School. They will have nine hours a week of practice work at the Training School and the Cambridge Nursery Schools. They will do supervised visiting in homes in the community and in hospital clinics.

Of the eight students who graduated last year, two will be on the staff at the Nursery Training School, three are directing cooperative nursery schools, one has opened her own school, one goes to Teachers College, Columbia, for further training, and one will care for children in her own home.

During its existence thirty-nine full-time and forty-two part-time students have been in attendance. Twenty-seven have received certificates and twenty-six are teaching in nursery schools.

American Sociological Society The twenty-third annual meeting of the Society will be held in Chicago, December 26-29, 1928. Meeting at the same time and place are the American Economic Association, the American Political Science Association, the American Statistical Association, the American Association for Labor Legislation, the American Farm Economic Association, the National Community Center Association, and the National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology.

The central topic of the general meeting of the American Sociological Society is "The Rural Community." Papers will be presented on the different aspects of rural life from the standpoints of social psychology, human ecology and population, social statistics, social research, and social biology. The various sections of the Society will hold separate meetings to discuss subjects of special interest in rural sociology, the family, the community, the sociology of religion, sociology and social work, educational sociology, the teaching of sociology, and the relation of sociology and psychiatry. (Copied from *The American Journal of Sociology*, July, 1928, XXXIV, 1, p. 207.)

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Dr. Walter C. Reckless, associate professor of sociology at Vanderbilt University, has been associated with Professor Ernst Krueger who has recently been appointed as chairman of the department. Dr. Reckless, who received his Ph.D. from the University of Chicago, made a notable study of vice areas of Chicago. He has been associated with Professor Krueger in the development of a child-behavior clinic under sociological auspices for the social agencies of Nashville. He is one of the joint authors of a new volume on *Sociological Techniques* which has been previously announced in the department of research of THE JOURNAL.

Assistant Professor Harvey W. Zorbaugh, of the School of Education of New York University, was born in Cleveland. His undergraduate work was done at Oberlin College and Vanderbilt University. From 1922 to 1925 he was a research fellow, under the Laura Spellman Rockefeller Foundation, at the University of Chicago. In 1925 he was associate director of the Lower North Child Guidance Clinic of Chicago (since incorporated with the Institute for Juvenile Research). Professor Zorbaugh spent the summer of 1925 observing behavior clinics in London and Vienna. He came to the School of Education of New York University in 1926 as a member of the department of educational sociology. Professor Zorbaugh is to be director of the Social Behavior Clinic, a clinic devoted to research in the social adjustment of difficult children, which the department of educational sociology is inaugurating within the year.

David H. Pierce; Sc.B., St. Lawrence University; ScM., University of Minnesota; Ph.D., New York University; teacher and grammar-school principal, Minneapolis; summer staff, University of South Dakota and West Virginia University; director Grafton (West Virginia) educational survey, 1925; instructor in education, New York University.

K. Fife Sterritt is principal of Monessen Junior High School, Monessen, Pennsylvania.

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EDITORIAL NOTES

In the book review section of this number of THE JOURNAL appears a notice of a recent publication, *Schools and Society in Chicago* by Professor Counts, contributing editor of THE JOURNAL, which will attract wide attention among all those who are interested in school administration in its sociological significance. The conventional texts on school administration include material on buildings, the administration of tests and measurements, State and local boards, the teaching staff, and numerous other similar topics. Most of the writers, however, totally neglect the social backgrounds of the community and their bearing upon administrative problems. Furthermore, the writers appear to be unconscious of the fact that there are in each community vital social processes in education which must be taken into account and dealt with in a masterly fashion in order to carry on the routine work of administration at all.

Professor Thrasher in his study of the gangs in Chicago displayed a body of material with which the administrator of schools has been unfamiliar. Such material bears directly on the administration of schools. Professor Zorbaugh, in his forthcoming study of local life in Chicago,

finds not only that the school plays an insignificant rôle in meeting the problems of local community life in the large city, but that in many instances the school actually creates community problems. Professor Counts has likewise critically analyzed a body of material and points out its bearing upon the problem of the administration of schools. The implications in this study will no doubt appear new to most superintendents. Why is it that material of such vital significance has been overlooked by educators occupying positions of leadership in American education? The answer is obvious to the educational sociologist. The administrator has become familiar with psychology and philosophy as applied to education. He has had usually no sociological training. His researches so far as they have been undertaken have been on child nature and its growth, and the mechanics of school administration. These studies have not been centered upon community life. The factors of human personality operating in group life, however, must be taken into account for any successful administration of schools. So far as the editor knows, this is the first book that undertakes a critical examination of even a part of the social forces which public education is supposed to direct, modify, and influence in the operation and the direction of social advance. The mere persistence of the superintendent in his position demands that he know something of group life and its operation. There is no subject in the university or teachers-college curriculum which makes a scientific approach to the study of these problems except educational sociology. It is to the solution of these problems that *THE JOURNAL* is in part attempting to devote its efforts.

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF
EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY
JOINT MEETING WITH THE AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL
SOCIETY

SECTION ON EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

December 27, 1928

Morning Session

General Topic—Sociology and Rural Education

Topic—Rural Community and Educational Administration

The Rural Community as a Unit for Rural Administration—PROFESSOR DWIGHT SANDERSON, Cornell University

Discussion by Dr. A. W. HAYES, Marshall College

Adaptation of Educational Administration to Rural Communities — GEORGE A. WORKS, University of Chicago

Luncheon Session

General Topic—Rural Sociology in Educational Problems

Problems of Rural Education Demanding Sociological Research—President's Annual Address

Implications of Recent Rural Surveys for Curriculum Building—EDMUND DES. BRUNNER, Institute of Social and Religious Research, New York City.

ESSENTIALS OF A GENERAL INTRODUCTORY COURSE IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY¹

WALTER ROBINSON SMITH

Two years ago, in a paper read before the Society for the Study of Educational Sociology, the writer elaborated in considerable detail the need of a consensus of attitudes, principles, and practices in teaching educational sociology. Since that subject has now taken specific form for this program, the present paper can be confined within narrow limits. The concrete problem to be discussed may be expressed as follows: Just what are the points of view and subject matters which I, as a teacher of an advanced course in educational sociology, have a right to expect the entrant to be familiar with, regardless of wherever or under whomsoever he may have had the introductory course? This implies, not that the introductory course must be standardized into uniform materials and methods, but that a reasonable agreement must be reached concerning a certain number of fundamentals. Our present need may be expressed in another way: Until there is at least a recognizable minimum of common essentials in every introductory course offered, we shall not receive, and probably shall not deserve, the full respect of other teachers in education, or in other departments of a reputable university.

With this preliminary statement and without any presumption that my analysis of the minimum essentials is better than that of another or that it is not subject to considerable change, I shall try to set forth what seems to me to constitute the basic ideas which should never be absent from a first course in educational sociology. Such a course might well consist of three parts: (1) Introductory analyses; (2) the sociology of education as an institutional func-

¹Paper read before a division of the College Teachers of Education at the Boston meeting of the Department of Superintendence.

tion; (3) the sociological study of school processes. These three parts may appear in different order and receive varying amounts of attention depending upon the class of students, the personal equation of the instructor, and the status of the course in the curriculum. No one, however, can safely be omitted. Let us examine each in turn.

I. THE INTRODUCTION

Under ordinary conditions, introductions, whether in society, or on the platform, or in school courses, should be very brief. Only the newness of the subject, its radical departure from the traditional point of view, and the complexity of the materials it embodies, can justify any extended preliminary discussions. Until such time, however, as our students come to us as well grounded in general sociology as the students entering educational psychology are grounded in general psychology, I can see no escape from spending a certain amount of our valuable time in sociological orientation. Just what, then, are the essentials of this orientation? Aside from the generalities incident to any new course, such as definition, purpose, and the relation of content to other educational disciplines, there are two basic concepts which are novel enough to the ordinary student to require extended illustration and perhaps defense.

The first of these concepts is concerned with the unit of study to be used. In those studies whose content is well enough established to become a part of the student social inheritance, such a preliminary is simple; but with us even the unit of study is subject to question. The group concept is so foreign to ordinary educational thinking that to many it appears new and revolutionary. Psychologists deal with individuals, discreet, ponderable realities, the traditional unit of school endeavor, and hence they have little need to pause over this phase of their subject. But

the sociologist begins and ends with the group and uses it always as his major focus of interest. Since it is less tangible and less completely organized, even though no less real than the individual, the sociologist must explain, illustrate, and elaborate in detail the significance of the social group in originating, developing, and executing both thought and achievement.

Without doubt there will be some among us who feel that I exaggerate the importance of a mere point of view; but I am unable to see how anyone can progress far in the understanding of educational sociology until he has a reasonably clear insight into the mutual interrelations and interdependencies of the individual and the social group. It is probable that as the social sciences develop, a sound interpretation of the group concept may become general; but that the time is altogether too distant is evident from the fact that many sociologists, even some teachers of educational sociology, are still dominated by individualistic thinking. They are in somewhat the same predicament as the author of a recent textbook in social psychology. This book is written with painstaking scholarship and great acumen, but an astounding amount of it is consumed in piling up evidence to prove that the individual is the beginning, the end, and the middle of human thought and action, and hence there can be no such thing as social psychology. It seems obvious to me that the moment we admit that the individual is the original, primary, and causal unit in human affairs that moment we admit that there can be no independent science of sociology or educational sociology. If thinking, inventing, discovering, leading, etc., can be reduced to a purely individual basis, if history and science and education can be treated as purely individualistic phenomena, then the so-called social sciences are merely extensions of psychology into the field of collective behavior. Furthermore, if the social group or institution is any more composed of individual increments than the individual is

composed of social and institutional increments, then educational sociology is a mere branch of educational psychology. Such a position of dependence would follow inevitably from an acceptance of Professor Allport's interpretation of social psychology.

Methods of inculcating the group concept will differ from teacher to teacher but means should be found in every introductory course in educational sociology to give training to students in overcoming the traditional individualistic bias and making them conscious of the group as an aggressive, originating unit, coordinate with the individual in every thought, act, ideal, and achievement.

The second fundamental concept that should run like the well-known "golden thread" through all of our work is that of socialization. If you ask an educational psychologist concerning the nature of his subject matter he will answer immediately that it is a study of the learning process. Has the educational sociologist an equally succinct answer that he can give to such a query? I think he has, and I expect it to be reiterated so frequently during the next quarter of a century that no explanation of it will be necessary. The suggestive definition, corresponding in terminology to that of educational psychology, is that educational sociology is a study of the socializing process. Neither of these abbreviated definitions are very meaningful, but they do serve as useful catch phrases around which to group explanations and studies.

To avoid any possible misunderstanding, may I elucidate further. Two individuals meet. The subtle processes of communication—gesture, voice, language, etc.,—as definite psychic mechanisms as the stimulus and response nerve cells within an individual, arouse a sympathy, an understanding, a social relationship that supervenes the personality of each. It is a new creation, a nucleus for coordinating group feeling, thinking, and acting. This associational

process is repeated and matures into a chumship. The chumship is more than the sum of the qualities of two individuals; it is a new social entity, created by the activity of interindividual stimuli and responses, which in turn have been molded into form by the same society which created the two individuals. Such a chumship constitutes a social group as distinct from either of the personalities composing it as they are from each other. Two other individuals meet, male and female. Social satisfiers and annoyers, both tangible and intangible stimulus and response mechanisms, are set in motion. These interacting social mechanisms create a new group entity which ultimately eventuates in the formation of a family. This newly created family takes form from social heredity as much as from the personalities of the contracting parties. Children come, and are molded, not into likeness to father and mother, so much as into a family pattern, which includes many ancestors. In like manner, gangs, fraternal orders, political parties, churches, and vocational organizations are formed. They are fashioned after other social groupings as well as the ideas of individuals composing them. Each of the above social groups becomes an originating and driving force, as definite a nucleus of the stimuli that produce thinking and acting as the physiological organisms of an individual.

Carrying this idea further, it is obvious that humanity, or society as we know it, is composed of both individuals and groups. Both are aggressive agents in every sentiment, thought, and act of human beings. Hence, life in any of its important aspects can be understood and interpreted only when studied from both individual and group standpoints. So significant a phase of life as education is both an individual and a group matter. It is equally vital to both, but the educative process as related to the two is sufficiently different to require separate names. As related to the individual it is learning; as related to the

group it is socialization. Learning takes place only through neural activities within the individual; socialization takes place only through social contacts between individuals, and individuals in contact constitute a social group. The morning greeting, the "twosome date," the gang about the drug store, the relatively continuous chumship, the athletic team or dramatic troupe, the school class, the family, and all of the larger deliberate and incidental organizations of people are nuclei of the socializing process. These groups constitute both means and ends of education and the phenomena they present form the laboratory materials of educational sociology. Educational sociologists as such are interested in the individual only through his social functioning and in learning only as it reinforces socialization. While the learning process and the socializing process are complementary, they originate in different places and move in opposite directions, the educational sociologist beginning his studies always with the group and dealing with the individual only in his group aspects.

I trust it will readily be understood that in this analysis of a satisfactory introduction I am pleading as much for a common terminology as for a minimum of universally recognized content. In itself, the terms used may not be important but in the establishment of a necessary point of view and in orienting our subject matter, both for students and the outsider, I consider an accepted terminology vital to the progress of educational sociology as a professional study for teachers. Moreover, this introductory material cannot be treated lightly. Merely telling students about it will be almost futile. They must be given practice in applying the group concept to various phases of life and achievement if we expect to develop in them habits of social thinking and of recognizing social outcomes as an end of school work. It should, therefore, occupy several days of intensive work at the beginning of a course and be reviewed at the end.

II. THE SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION AS AN INSTITUTION

If, in the introduction, students are thoroughly grounded in the social, or group, point of view, they are then ready to apply it in a sociological study of education as an institution. This implies an investigation of the educational aspects of the various social processes. Chief among these are the passing on of the social inheritance, social organization, social control, and social progress. Each of these processes constitutes both a means and an end of education and should be dealt with fully enough to make them useful bases of approach to school problems. The social inheritance, for example, through the folk ways and *mores* dominates the vast ranges of informal education. It provides the patterns of administrative machinery by which the schools are organized and directed, and a large share of the materials of the curriculum. That it constitutes an end of education is indicated by the frequent repetition of Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler's definition of education as the process of passing on the social inheritance and its general acceptance as the chief purpose of the elementary schools.

As most of you know, the second of these processes, social organization, forms the chief basis of the writer's early attack upon educational problems. One of the first and most obvious contributions educational sociology should make is a clarification of the function of the schools as they are related to other organizational activities. Through the stimulus inchoate groups and institutional organizations give to thought and activity, the practice they provide in social participation and the use of social machinery, and the inspiration they offer to learning and socialization, they contribute abundant means and materials to the educative process. Also, since a large proportion of one's life activities must take place in groups, and a goodly share of the service one renders must be in the nature of improving institutional efficiency, the development of social-mindedness and skill in organization becomes a primary end of

education. On the whole, it is probable that more educational sociologists have dealt satisfactorily with this phase of their subject than any other.

The third of the social processes which are immanent in every phase of education is that of social control. It forms the chief basis of Professor Hayes's approach to educational problems, was the foundation of the writer's *Constructive School Discipline*, and is more or less fully recognized in all of the textbooks now available. The varied elements of social control provide the stimulating and restraining factors in school discipline, training for personality leadership, and moral education. Social control, therefore, supplies both means and ends in a socializing school régime. In like manner, the fourth of the social processes, that of social evolution or progress, is implicit in all educational thinking and acting. Professors Ellwood and Todd have particularly emphasized this approach to educational philosophy. A study of evolutionary trends and a weighing of human values are necessary to a sound interpretation of present school programs and policies. As mastery of the past constitutes a fundamental means of education, so the control and direction of present forces to bring about changes favorable to progress constitute vital ends of education.

Any one of these four major social processes, i e., the passing on of the social inheritance, social organization, social control, or social progress, may be made the basis of a systematic treatment of educational data and specific school problems. Hence any teacher may, and probably should, emphasize some one much more than the others; but no introductory course should omit at least a brief study of the educational implications of each of them. It seems to me that no one can read intelligently either the popular literature or the technical educational magazines of our day without realizing that one of our most glaring needs is a sane and broad educational perspective; and

the educational sociologist, through a clear analysis of the sociology of education as an institutional activity, has an incomparable opportunity to develop such a perspective. Moreover, a study of the various social processes should not be merely theoretical. It can be made as practical as any other teacher-training discipline if every phase of the discussion is so concretely connected with the daily life of the school that the student can see its application to specific teaching problems.

III. THE SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY OF SCHOOL PROCESSES

The third fundamental part of a beginning course should consist of an application of the group concept to practical school problems. These problems are usually grouped into four divisions—objectives, administration, curriculum, and method. In each, the individual and the social group are equally involved; hence a balanced treatment requires both psychological and sociological studies. By virtue of his long running start ahead of us, we can trust the educational psychologist to keep the individual and his learning processes in the foreground. The responsibility rests with us, therefore, to maintain the proper educational perspective by a continued emphasis upon group phenomena and the socializing processes in each of the four phases of school work. That educational sociologists have not lived up to their responsibilities is evident from the fact that few texts have included even a brief treatment of two of these divisions. In fact, the only one that has received sufficient analysis to make a definite impression upon educational theory and practice is that of objectives. Naturally, the social-activity approach to the determination of school objectives has involved some treatment of curricula from the standpoint of their social outcomes; but neither administration nor method has received anything like adequate treatment from educational sociologists. While it may not be possible in a brief introductory course to cover the

whole field thoroughly, no one of these four aspects of school activity can safely be neglected if we are to convince the practical school man that educational sociology is as foundational to every phase of his work as is educational psychology.

In his researches into concrete school problems, the educational sociologist must utilize exact scientific instruments. The astronomer has his telescope and the biologist his microscope. Coming still closer the educational psychologist has his tests and scales. Can we develop a correspondingly exact means of measurement? I think we can, and it is time for us to begin standardizing a name for it. The tool or scientific device, most common to the social sciences is the *survey*. It is used in history, political science, economics, and sociology, and indicates an impartial, exact, and relatively complete assembly and classification of objective data. While the term "survey" as used in the social sciences does not have the exact connotation or universal use as a means of measurement, now associated with the microscope or the intelligence test, it is the nearest parallel which the present inchoate status of the social sciences can present. Moreover, the name has been preempted in education by the shot-gun type of general school survey. Yet, in spite of these difficulties, it seems to me to be the only term now available which we are likely to agree upon, and into which frequent usage may read the exact significance that must characterize studies in our field. It is true that a survey implies comprehensiveness, and consequently the term cannot be used for every detailed study in the realm of educational sociology. But neither are all biological studies microscopic, nor all psychological studies called tests. It will scarcely be questioned, however, that the term "survey" fits general sociological studies of objectives, administration, curricula, and methods, and if it be continually repeated will gradually acquire the exactness and objectivity of other scientific nomenclature.

Using the survey as an instrument, then, an introductory course should embody a preliminary investigation of the social aspects of each of the four divisions of school problems. A survey of objectives would imply an analysis of social activities and the personal characteristics required in the performance of these activities. Such surveys have already been conducted with notable success by Bobbitt, Charters, Peters, and others. My advanced text, just off the press, contains initial general surveys of the student population and the teaching population, together with the inherent problems they present. Scientific surveys of administrative machinery and policies, both as they affect society outside the schools, and administrative officers within the schools, are very much needed. In like manner, the application of detailed survey technique is needed to bring out the social elements involved in the readaptation and reconstruction of present school curricula. Finally, the survey idea might be used as a basis of attack upon the problem of method, and, by its greater comprehensiveness, serve as an antidote to the narrowness of the individual-instructionist zealots, the project-problem worshipers, the socialized-recitation reformers, and the lecture, drill, and question-and-answer traditionalists.

By way of summary and conclusion may I suggest that educational sociology is rapidly growing into a universally accepted discipline in the training of teachers and that one of our two most binding obligations is to hasten this desideratum by organizing a beginning course which can be made effective for every student of education. Further, may I urge that such a course should contain, in some form and degree, the following essentials: (1) A reasonable consensus concerning the point of view and terminology to be made familiar in every elementary course regardless of wheresoever or by whomsoever offered; (2) that every such course should embody a respectable minimum of commonly accepted materials and problems; (3) that it must

include the orientation of education as a social institution by a sufficient analysis of the educational aspects of such general social processes as the perpetuation of the social heritage, social organization, social control, and social progress to give the student a clear insight into the social function of the school; (4) that it should be intense enough to give training in sociological thinking and investigation in the field of education and extensive enough to cover in a preliminary way each of the four divisions of school problems; (5) that this general course aim equally at giving practical aid to the teacher who takes no further work in educational sociology, and providing a broad foundation for those students who elect advanced courses in our department. It is scarcely to be hoped or desired that all of us agree concerning details or relative emphases in the broad field above outlined; but we may rest assured that as rapidly as we can organize an introductory course embodying the above essentials, and train teachers to give it with a modicum of efficiency, it will take its place alongside the general course in educational psychology as a prerequisite for a certificate to teach in the public schools.

UNSUPERVISED CLUB LIFE AMONG GIRLS ATTENDING SECONDARY SCHOOLS

JOHN M. EDDY

Writers in educational sociology have long realized that boys tend to form unsupervised groups, but the fact that girls form similar organizations has been ignored. This truth was brought home to a group of sophomores in one of our Southern colleges for women when a search through the college library showed that all references to gangs dealt with groups of boys. Later the search was continued in the libraries of one of our great universities with the same results. The present study is an attempt to learn something of the nature of the unsupervised club activities of girls attending secondary schools.

The information was gathered by the use of a questionnaire distributed to 364 members of the sophomore class, the per cent of returns being about ninety. Later the information was supplemented by personal interviews. The returns represent every county in an entire state and every type of secondary school. They are not representative in that girls who have survived their freshman year in college are above the average of their former classmates in mental ability and, also, in that women attending a girls' school represent the more conservative families of the State. Since the extracurricular programs of the secondary schools studied have received little attention the results indicate what normal girls will do when planning their own social lives. The findings in kindred fields which throw light on the problem will be summarized in the next few paragraphs.

Thrasher found five or six girl gangs while making his investigation in Chicago but he mentions only one, a group of girls who got together to play ball.¹ While a few mixed

¹Frederick M. Thrasher. *The Gang* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1927), ch. xiii.

gangs were interested in immoral practices in most cases, a boy was forced out of the group as soon as he even became interested in girls. Occasionally a girl became a member of a boy group, with the status of a boy, on the basis of her ability to compete in their rougher sports. He attributes the lack of inclination of girls to form gangs to the stricter social patterns and the more complete parental oversight forced upon them.

Brown has prepared a propaganda book to offset the tendency to outlaw the Greek Letter organizations from the secondary school.² The former national president of a sorority devotes five pages of the text matter to a refutation of the common objections to high-school chapters among girls. She proposes that these clubs be made a great influence for good by having different members of the high-school staff seek membership in each so that they can be controlled from within. The chapter rolls at the end of the book show that some of the present secondary-school sororities were organized in the early eighties.

Lehman and Witty learned that the tendency of girls to form groups and to play games requiring group coöperation increases after the twelfth year and that after girls are fifteen they devote considerable attention to clubs and gangs.³ The authors also state that girls from urban centers are more specialized in their activities than are the girls from the country.

In a study reported by Miss Wellman she tells us that the girls in the Junior High School of Lincoln School of Teachers College are more inclined to limit the number of their companions than are boys with a proportionately larger amount of time spent with special friends.⁴ The

²J. Ward Brown *American Secondary School Fraternities* (New York: The Maske Brown Company, 1913), pp. 40-44.

³Harvey C. Lehman and F. A. Witty *The Psychology of Play Activities* (A. S. Barnes and Company, 1927).

⁴Beth Wellman, "The School Child's Choice of Companions," *Journal of Educational Research*, XIV, September, 1926, pp. 126-132.

number ratios were sixteen to twenty-two. With the single exception of intelligence quotient, in which favorite pairs of boys were more nearly alike than girls, the closest companions among girls were most nearly alike in mental traits and scholarship. Boys, on the other hand, tended to choose friends of similar age and height and to disregard school marks.

Professor Blatz of the University of Toronto, in his unpublished lectures, says that the tendency to form unsponsored groups is about of equal strength in both sexes. The chief differences are three: that girls tend to organize their clubs at the onset of puberty while boys are then beginning to disband theirs; that girl groups are more restricted in membership and in the number of interests represented; and that the girls' clubs are shorter lived.

Since the literature on extracurricular activities is so abundant and varied only three samples will be noted here. Ayers shows us that the sponsored extracurricular interests do not fully satisfy the needs of the secondary pupil for he tends to join one outside organization for each two school groups of which he is a member. Nickel, on the basis of a study which he made in Iowa, concludes that athletics and school offices decrease a student's chance for a high-school mark while the special-interest clubs enhance this possibility.⁸ Dement found that sixty-eight per cent of the pupils in the smaller high schools of California, which were sampled in her study, were participating in sponsored groups while other observers report fewer participants.⁹ Reference will be made to these statements in later paragraphs.

⁸Clarence Earl Nickel, "Relation of Extracurricular Activities and Scholarship." Unpublished Master's Thesis, School of Education, University of Chicago, 1927

⁹Alice L. Dement, "Values in Extracurricular Organizations in the High School," *The School Review*, XXXII, January, 1924, pp 40-48.

THE RESULTS FROM THE QUESTIONARY

In compiling the data which follow, all replies have been discarded which indicate that the subject was thinking either of those daily meetings between chums or of those groups organized to serve school or church purposes. The task was not difficult because the blanks used were specific on this point and the questions were so arranged as to check on the accuracy of the reply. Tabulations have been made on the basis of the type of school attended and the returns represent both the junior and senior high-school periods. The country schools referred to are either rural consolidated schools or those located in villages in which a majority of the pupils come from farm homes by school bus. These school districts have been recently organized, the buildings are usually new and the teaching staff in most of them is rather young and aggressive. The villages are those small isolated places which, because of bad roads or geographical features, do not serve as a school center for a wide area. The schools are usually of poor quality and the opportunities for contacts are meager. The towns range in size from four to twenty-five thousand with populations which are unusually stable and which are usually divided by rather definite caste lines. The school personnel tends to be stable and conservative. The characteristics of the different schools suggest causes for some of the results which follow.

The number of clubs to which a single girl belonged. The table on page 214 represents all the replies received, those which follow include statements which gave the desired information. The total number of clubs reported is 364 and the total number of students who indicated that they had belonged to one or more unsponsored groups is 214 or sixty-four per cent of those who returned the blanks. Since this percentage is about the same as when the school maintains an aggressive extracurricular program, we are led to believe that the tendency to organize will show itself

NUMBER OF CLUBS TO WHICH A SINGLE GIRL BELONGED

Number of Clubs	Town		Village		Country		Total	
		Per cent		Per cent		Per cent		Per cent
1	61	49.2	27	82.0	35	61.4	123	57.7
2.	34	27.8	3	9.1	18	31.6	55	25.7
3	17	13.9	2	6.0	4	7.0	23	10.7
4	7	5.6	1	3.0			8	3.7
5	4	3.2					4	1.9
Did not say . . .	1	.8					1	.5
Total	124		33		57		214	
Average	1.85		1.3		1.46		1.7	

to about the same extent regardless of school policy. A second conclusion may also be justified—that the tendency to organize is strongest where the opportunity for contacts are most varied. Although no definite figures which show what portion of the sophomore class came from each of the three types of schools is available the percentage of membership is considerably higher in the town schools. Girls from farm homes usually cannot maintain a wide circle of friends because of the distance between homes, and those from the villages are forced to meet the same companions again and again no matter whether organized or not. The town girls, only, can select their own friends and here organizations are most common. The weakness of the *laissez-faire* attitude towards club life is most evident in village and country schools for without a stimulated incentive the girls do not seem to have realized the value of organized group effort.

The size of the different groups. The following tables show that the average size of the club groups are about the same no matter what the type of school. Since fewer clubs are found in country and village, the girls probably do not

SIZE OF CLUB GROUPS

Number of members	Town	Village	Country	Total
5 or less.	10	4	11	25
6 to 10	61	19	27	107
11 to 15	39	12	10	61
16 to 20	23	1	3	27
Over 20	4	2		6
Total	137	38	51	226
Average.	12 6	12 5	12 1	

organize until enough members are available to make the meetings interesting. The uniformity in average size is accounted for in part because the usual meeting place was in the home of one of the members where capacity is limited by the size of the parlor. The larger groups usually used special club rooms and these are more common in towns and villages than in farming communities. This observation is supported by the facts in the following table.

SIZE OF CLUBS CONTAINING MEMBERS OF BOTH SEXES

Number of members	Town	Village	Country	Total
5 to 10	13	2	4	19
11 to 15	13	.	3	16
16 to 20	9	1	2	12
Above 20	5	1		6
Total	40	4	9	53
Average	14 7	15 2	11.4	

Although the size of an organization of girls is limited by the number of available members where both sexes are included, the number of possible candidates for membership is doubled. The table shows that the size of the groups remains practically the same even where the membership is mixed and it suggests that size is determined by factors common to all organizations. The extracurricu-

lar clubs reported by Dement were about double the size of those represented in this study while boys are supposed to maintain larger club gangs than girls. The differences between sponsored clubs and groups of boys as compared to spontaneous organizations of girls may not be due to inherent differences in disposition. In this study the size of the rural groups was determined by the facilities for entertainment in the country homes while the increased membership in village and town is due to the presence of club rooms and public parlors which are available as meeting places. Both sponsorship by responsible adults and a suitable hall are needed for mixed clubs and both of these are usually possible when the school staff assumes direction for the social life of the school population.

Purposes for which clubs are formed. Most of the clubs were social in character. The few groups which served other than social interests contained few members and represented few interests. The following summary shows

PURPOSES REPRESENTED IN THE SPECIAL-INTEREST CLUBS

Purpose	Town	Village	Country	Total
Literary	7	2	4	13
Athletic	8	1	1	10
Sewing	6	7	6	19
Music and drawing . .	2	1	2	5
Mutual help with studies..	2		3	5
Community service . . .	1	1	..	2
Make others envious . . .	1	1	.	2
Prevent boys from dominating in school activities.....	2	1	2	5
Total.	29	14	18	61
Average membership.	11	8 2	11.7	11 3

that girls cannot be left to their own devices in developing avocational pursuits for only an eighth of the total number of clubs were really based on hobbies. Boys are more

varied in their interests than these girls seem to have been and while the girls were most interested in social functions and in interests growing out of class work boys care least for these. Community service is almost ignored as it is mentioned only twice. Even then the good deeds were mixed with pranks and social functions when the club really got together. Further light on purpose will be gained from a later table.

Duration of membership. The average duration is a little over two years for all types of schools with the village clubs holding together only two thirds as long as the others. Although the shorter period of association in the

NUMBER OF YEARS EACH SOPHOMORE WAS ASSOCIATED
WITH HER CLUB

Number of years	Town	Village	Country	Total clubs
1	49	22	13	34
2	67	12	28	107
3	25	4	6	35
4	29	1	12	42
5	6	.	2	8
6	1		1	2
8	1			1
Total	178	39	62	279
Average years.	2 35	1.6	2.44	

village schools may have been due to chance, it is probably a reflection of the personal antagonisms which intermittently prevent friendly contact between given individuals. The greatest contrast between boy and girl groups is suggested by the table. Practically all the girls were group members during their last years in high school which means that the clubs were organized after the adolescent change was well under way. Boys, on the other hand, form their groups at nine or ten and disband them after the middle teens. One of the reasons for the shorter

duration of membership with girls is the relatively small number of groups dominated by a special interest. While the purely social group serves a real need, the club dominated by a hobby has more than twice the chance of surviving longer than a two-year period. Practically none of the memberships seem to have extended into the grammar grades and only one group out of ten continued to live after the original members left school. The organizations seem to have merely served to provide an incentive for regular contact between friends.

Effect of group membership on relations to the remainder of the school. Most of the girls thought that their group associations had no appreciable effect on their general school contacts. Where conduct was changed the

REPORTED EFFECT OF CLUB ASSOCIATIONS ON INDIVIDUAL MEMBERS

Effect	Town	Village	Country	Total	Per Cent
Increased circle of friends	44	11	20	75	55.8
Stimulated mental life	13	1	7	21	15.6
Narrowed circle of friends	26	1	6	33	24.5
Kept sexes apart	1	1	1	3	2.2
Stimulated contact with boys	1	1		2	1.5
Total	85	15	34	134	

effect was usually favorable. The relations with girls who were not members seem to have been quite congenial, for they were often invited to club parties. Only a few contacts provided mental stimulation and the groups represented were usually literary or special interest clubs as Nickel learned from his studies in Iowa. The social effect of the village organizations was especially fortunate in that the unsponsored contacts seem to have counteracted somewhat the antagonisms of parents which are so often present in these small centers.

The questionnaire asked for a description of the conflicts which occurred between parents or school staff and club members. The replies throw further light on the results of contacts within the groups. To judge from the vicious names which the members gave to a sixth of their organizations the relations must have bordered on open conflict. In the State where these clubs were found, high-school fraternities were illegal so that the attitude of the principals was one of watchful ignorance. Six of the twenty-six reported conflicts would probably not have occurred had the members of the school staff exercised ordinary intelligence at all times as, for example, when pranks on April first were permitted to disrupt the school or when curious principals attempted to learn secrets by the use of public punishments. Four really serious conflicts arose when members helped one another to "cut" unpopular classes and to absent themselves from school to attend ball games in neighboring towns. Most of the remaining difficulties arose when the social activities of the groups took too much time away from lesson preparation. Where the clubs were of mixed membership the probability of conflict increased about three times.

Probably girl gangs have received little attention in the past because they have been managed with so little outside friction. One of the reasons for the greater tractability of girl groups is that the usual meeting places are in the homes of the members. One of the groups which had a secret meeting place was composed of both sexes but the hikes and excursions of the members were not looked upon with disfavor. The secret activities of girls when alone consisted in wearing clothing borrowed from brothers, playing with dolls, rehearsing amateur plays before presenting them at parties, and perfecting plans for increasing the influence of girls in school politics. Apparently adults can, with perfect peace of mind, continue to permit high-school girls to manage their own activities.

CONCLUSIONS

The tendencies of boys and girls to form groups are about equally strong, the chief differences being that while the tendency is strongest in preadolescent boys, the urge usually does not appear until midadolescence in girls, and that the interests of girls do not seem to be as varied as those of boys. Probably the smaller number of members in the girls' clubs are due to limitations in meeting places.

The tendency to organize into groups is unchanged where the school maintains an active extracurricular program. The chief difference is that the sponsored clubs represent a greater number of interests.

The tendency seems to be strongest where the opportunities for contacts are greatest and least where the need for such contacts are most urgent.

The clubs were sanely managed and the interests served were wholesome. The emphasis should be directed partly away from social to civic and avocational needs.

The whole topic of spontaneous organizations among girls lies in practically a virgin field which deserves more attention than investigators are inclined to give to it.

EDUCATION IN SOVIET ARMENIA

GEORGE M. WILCOX

I

ADMINISTRATION AND ORGANIZATION

"In Czarist times Armenia was merely a buffer state," said a high official in Erivan, the capital of the Republic of Armenia. "No effort was made to develop it agriculturally, industrially, or educationally." The vast military barracks in Leninakan, formerly Alexandropol, which have been used by the Near East Relief for the past ten years to house thousands of orphans, are evidence of the chief interest of the former régime in that region. The problems of the present educational administration in its efforts to build a school system suited to the needs of the country, are consequently even greater than if they had to deal only with the reconstruction of a system disorganized by wars, deportations, earthquakes, and other calamities.

When one realizes that in 1921 seventy-three per cent of the population of Armenia were illiterate, the scope of the problem may be grasped. Since then 35,000 children and adults have passed through the courses of instruction each year. The population of Armenia is estimated at present to be not less than one million. Some of the difficulties that have had to be met are lack of funds, an inadequate number of teachers, and poorly trained teachers. An asset is the very genuine and universal love of education for which Armenians have been noteworthy. This trait has made it possible to enroll large numbers of adults in educational courses, especially during the long winters.

The administration of education in Armenia is highly centralized under the Commissariat of Education. Although efforts have been made to stimulate initiative and responsibility in the various districts, the leadership at this time of construction comes from the Commissar (Minister)

of Education and his able assistants. Farsighted and definite plans have been made for the development of education throughout the Republic. Objectives have been clearly formulated and include compulsory elementary education, much emphasis on vocational education, and literacy for all adults. Fundamental questions such as the nature and extent of the natural resources, kinds of soil, possible products of different parts of the country, amount of rainfall in different regions, and the types of industrial development suitable to the country, are being studied on experimental farms and in laboratories.

The Commissariat of Education is organized in three divisions to administer its three principal types of activities. The Division of Social Education has charge of the general education of children between the ages of three and seventeen years. The Division of Vocational Education directs the work of agricultural schools, industrial schools, teacher-training institutions, and all other vocational schools. The Division of Adult Education administers the political education of adults and the general education of illiterate adults. It has charge of the educational work in clubs, unions, theaters, and village centers. All workers of every type are members of unions. Each union is responsible for the removal of illiteracy from among its members. The Department for the Welfare of Women gets results through the organization of educational societies among women. The army trains illiterate recruits during their term of service. Wherever there is a school it is used in the evenings during the six months of winter for the education of adults.

The preparation and publication of textbooks is completely under the control of the Commissariat of Education, except that all material for publication must be approved by the Committee for Political Education. During the past few years there has been frequent revision of textbooks to bring them up-to-date and to adapt them to the

"complex" method of teaching. This has entailed considerable expense because textbooks have had to be replaced before they were worn out, but this expense is borne by the parents of school children. It has also put a heavy load on the Government Printing office which has not been able to keep up with the demand for new textbooks. All books must be printed in the new orthography which is a simplification of the old Armenian alphabet.

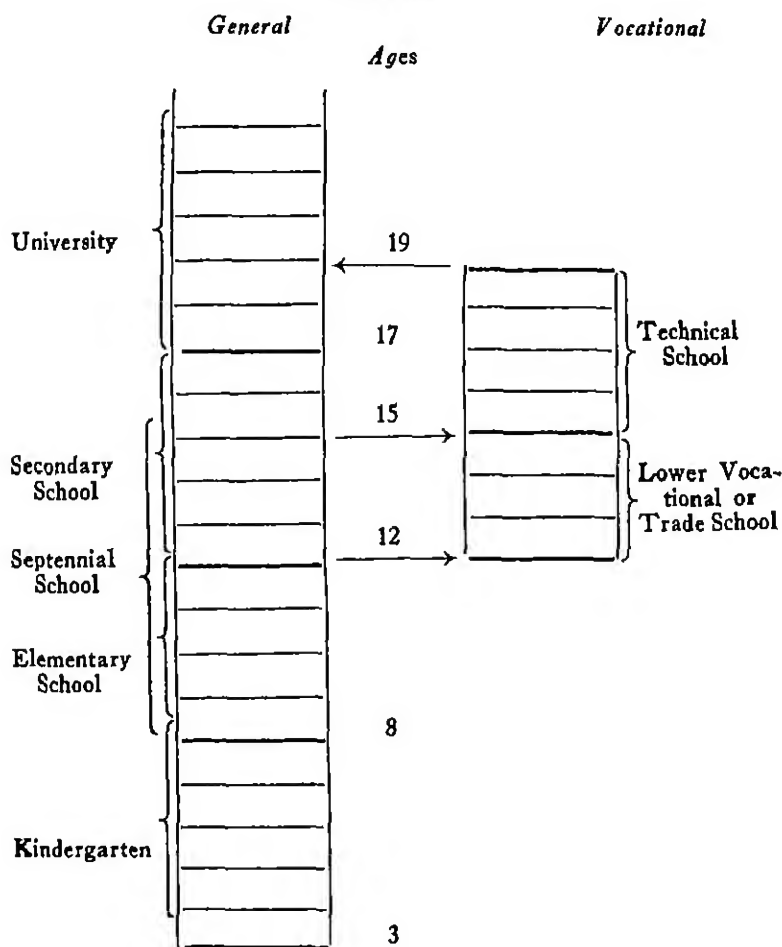
The status of teachers in Armenia is very favorable both professionally and socially. Teachers are all members of the Professional Union and the regulations with regard to salary, vacations, and working conditions in general are governed by the Union. The attitude of the Government in regard to teachers is wise because it makes the profession attractive to young men and women who are training for a vocation. Although education in the elementary schools is compulsory now, there are not enough teachers to put this provision fully into effect. By 1933-1934 it will be necessary to have 4000 teachers and compulsory education will then be enforced throughout the Republic. With the position of teachers so secure, however, there is danger that some of the incentive for professional self-improvement may be reduced. Although success in service is supposed to be one criterion for promotion, as a matter of fact it depends largely on training and number of years of experience. The Government recognizes the importance of stimulating teachers to further professional advancement and teachers' institutes are planned for each year. In the fall of 1926, for instance, the plan was to use the first two weeks of the school year beginning September first for teachers' institutes. It was decided by the Teachers' Professional Union that these meetings should be held during the school year instead of during the vacation. The reason given was that the percentage of sickness among teachers in general is about 5 per cent, whereas among Armenian teachers who have

undergone many hardships during the past few years, the percentage is 8.6. Consequently they needed all of the vacation time for rest and recuperation. The government plan for the improvement of teachers in Armenia is to have the teachers in groups of villages organize as a council with a chairman. The chairmen of several councils are brought together and are taught the program which they are to pass on to their groups. These councils meet weekly in summer and biweekly in winter. They work on courses of study, distribute school supplies, discuss methods of teaching and questions of discipline and sanitation, control the reading of children, arrange for school assemblies and concerts, and organize excursions.

The general plan of organization of public schools in Armenia is shown graphically in the accompanying chart. Children enter the kindergarten at the age of three and continue until they are eight years old. In the lower years the kindergartens are really chiefly *crèches*. Their purpose is primarily to take care of the children of peasant families to release the mother for work outside of the home. The Government finds that considerable education of parents is necessary to put this plan into effect because parents are accustomed to keep their children at home in order to make use of their work. They must be convinced that it is better for the children to be cared for in a school. In Czarist times there were no kindergartens in Armenia and the schools now in existence have been established since 1921. Because of the small number of trained kindergarten teachers, many of the schools do not have a very modern program. The kindergartens in Erivan, however, are excellent. Government officials are proud of the up-to-date methods employed in some of their schools.

The four-year elementary course is shown in Table I. This course is followed also in the village schools with the exception of art and Russian. If the teacher can teach these subjects, they are included; if not, the time goes to

CHART OF THE ARMENIAN GOVERNMENT SCHOOL SYSTEM



Note: The arrows indicate the points at which transfers can be made from the general to the vocational schools and *vice versa*.

the other school work. The national languages in different parts of Armenia include Armenian, Russian, Greek, Syrian, Tartar, and Kurdish. An alphabet has been evolved for Syrian and one for Kurdish. When they are approved by the Institute of Science in Petrograd, textbooks will be

published for use in schools for those nationalities. The national language of the group served by the school is used as the language of instruction, but children who are not Armenians must study Armenian also as the constitutional language. This subject takes four hours a week at the expense of the other subjects which are taught by the "complex" method. Recreation is not listed in Table I as a part of the elementary-school course, but is provided outside of regular school hours.

TABLE I
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SCHEDULE IN ARMENIA

National Language Social Science Natural History Mathematics Art: Singing and Drawing Russian	}	Grades			
		I	II	III	IV
		24	24	20	20
				4	4
				4	4

The first four subjects are not assigned separate periods, but are taught together by the complex method which is similar to the integrated instruction (*Gesamtunterricht*) in German elementary schools. The complex method of teaching is used throughout the elementary school and it is planned to use it also in the lower vocational school. The development of the various complexes is described in a later article.

The plan of organization provides for a five-year secondary-school course for children between the ages of twelve and seventeen, following the four-year elementary school. The common secondary schools are at present septennial schools with three years above the elementary school. These schools have been organized recently in several localities because the school system has been in operation just long enough now for numbers of children to be ready for the secondary course. The time schedule used in Near East Relief Septennial Schools, which follows closely the schedule in Government schools, is shown in Table II.

TABLE II
SEPTENNIAL SCHOOL SCHEDULE IN ARMENIA
NEAR EAST RELIEF SCHOOLS

Subject	Year		
	V	VI	VII
I SOCIAL			
1 Armenian	5	5	5
2. Russian	5	4	4
3. English	4	4	4
4. History }	4	4	4
5. Sociology }			
6 Geography ..	2	3	3
7 Singing ..	2	2	2
8 Drawing .	2	2	2
9 Auditorium ..	2	2	2
II BIOLOGICAL			
1 Botany .	4		
2. Anatomy and Hygiene .			3
III. SCIENTIFIC AND MATHEMATICAL			
1 Physics	2	2	2
2. Chemistry .		2	2
3. Geology .		3	
4. Mathematics .	4	4	4
	<hr/> 36	<hr/> 37	<hr/> 37

The only difference between the schedule shown in Table II and that followed in the Government schools is that English is not taught in the latter. It is approved, however, by the Commissariat of Education because, as stated by a high official of the Department, "We consider English the most useful international language."

The method of teaching in nonvocational secondary schools is still by subjects instead of using the complex method. It is expected that this method will continue in the general secondary schools.

There is great need for textbooks in the secondary subjects. Some of the teachers in the Near East Relief schools have been working out courses in the sciences. The plan is to use them in mimeograph form for classroom instruction and later to print them for general use in Armenia. This can be done only by coöperating closely with Government officials to ensure that the courses are suitable for general use.

In the summer of 1926, when the writer spent three months in Armenia studying the educational system, there were as yet no fully organized Government secondary schools. The Near East relief, however, maintained a Teacher-Training School, providing opportunity for the brightest of the older orphan boys and girls to complete the last two years of the high-school course and to take one additional year devoted largely to normal courses and practice teaching. The schedule of subjects in years VIII and IX are the same as the proposed schedule for the last two years of the Government high schools, with the exception of the teacher-training subjects and English. The schedule of the Near East Relief High and Normal School is shown in Table III.

TABLE III
SCHEDULE OF THE HIGH AND NORMAL SCHOOL
NEAR EAST RELIEF

Subjects	Year		
	VIII	IX	X
I. SOCIAL			
1. Armenian and Literature....	4	4	4
2. Russian	4	4	4
3. English	4	3	3
4. History	4	4	2
5. Economics		2	
6. Government Law		1	
7. Economic Geography.	3		
8. Drawing and Singing.....	2	2	2
9. Auditorium	2	2	2
II. BIOLOGICAL			
1. General Biology	3		
2. Physiology and Hygiene....	2	1	
III. SCIENTIFIC AND MATHEMATICAL			
1. Physics	2	2	2
2. Chemistry	3	3	
3. Astronomy			2
4. Mathematics	4	4	3
IV. TEACHER TRAINING			
1. Psychology		3	
2. Pedagogy	2	3	2
3. Methods			3
4. Practice Teaching			10
	39	38	39

In the last two years of some of the five-year Government high schools there will be diversified teaching including such courses as training for commercial coöperatives, Government offices, municipal offices, general office work, teaching, and other vocational activities. In agricultural districts these diversified courses will include agricultural training. These courses are for students who will not go on to the university. Thus the high school as well as the trade and technical schools will provide definite vocational training for those who want it.

Special schools which have been organized for laboring people and others who have not had educational opportunities require only five years for the nine years of the regular elementary and secondary courses. Rate of progress in these schools depends on the capacity of the individual.

The general plan of organization as shown in the chart provides for two grades of vocational schools, a three-year lower vocational school for children between the ages of twelve and fifteen, followed by a four-year technical school. At present the latter provides courses for only two years. The schedule of subjects for the lower vocational or trade schools is shown in Table IV, on page 230.

Each of the trade courses is continued for three years. Not all of them, however, are taught in each school; the different schools specialize on certain of the trades. Courses are being worked out on the complex method, and textbooks are in process of preparation. In the Near East Relief Trade School at Leninakan considerable progress has been made in the construction of trade courses on the unit operation method, based on the analysis of trades as practised in Armenia.

The importance of agriculture in Armenia has been recognized by the Government. An agricultural school and experimental farm is in operation not far from Erivan. The general subjects for the agricultural school course are

TABLE IV

SCHEDULE OF THE LOWER VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS IN ARMENIA

General Subjects		Trade Courses		
	Years: I	II	III	
I. PRODUCTION CYCLE				
1. Nature Study.....	2			1. Chauffeurs and Mechanics
2. Mathematics				2. Electricity, Electro-Mechanics, Electro-Technical Work
a. Arithmetic and Accounting	3	2	2	3. Painting and Plastering
b. Geometry ...	2	2	1	4. Masonry and Construction
3. Physics and Chemistry ..	4	3		5. Locksmith and Wheelwright Work
4. Technology		2	2	6. Carpentry and Cabinet Making
5. Record and Cost Accounting ..			1	7. Tailoring
6. Mechanics ..		2	2	
7. Mechanical Drawing ..	3	2		
8. Shopwork ...	12	15	24	
II. GENERAL CYCLE				
1. Native Language and Office Work..	3	3	3	
2. Sociology ..	2	2		
3. Organization of Production			2	
4. Study of Various Countries with Emphasis on Certain Specialties	3	2		
5. Code of Labor Laws and Professional Ethics			2	
6. Hygiene and Physiology for Workers		2	2	
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	
	34	37	41	

similar to those of the trade schools as shown in Table IV, but practical work in farming and animal husbandry takes the place of shopwork.

At the top of the system of Government schools, as shown in the chart, is the National University at Erivan. It is organized in four departments—agriculture, law, medicine, and engineering. The medical and engineering courses require five years for completion, the other two courses four years; but an additional year of practical ex-

perience is required in each of the courses, so that they are really six and five years in length, respectively. In 1926, there were about 500 students in agriculture, 300 each in medicine and engineering, and 200 in the law school, making a total of 1300 in round numbers.

Thus, when its plans of organization are fully accomplished, the Armenian Government will provide free education from the preschool *crèche* through the university. There is consistent emphasis on vocational education throughout the system. The complex method of teaching and the work of Near East Relief schools, which have contributed much to the educational development of Armenia, are described in a later article.

ATTITUDES AS A FACTOR OF TEACHING IN NORMAL SCHOOLS

A. SCOTT LEE

What are the attitudes of students in normal schools towards their studies? How do these attitudes hinder or hasten school progress? Are these attitudes innate, and directly related to what Woodworth¹ calls "primary likes and dislikes," or are they acquired? If acquired, what agencies lead to their acquisition, and when and where are they made? How effective is the normal school in changing negative attitudes to positive mental interests in the school life and the subject matter of the curriculum?

These questions are vital to the well functioning of any educational institution, and especially so to the normal school. Any effort made towards finding their answers and making adjustments accordingly, would doubtless be time well spent. Educational progress suggests that we must consider more how students are affected in life interests by what we try to teach them.

The data used in this study to throw some light on a part of the questions raised were secured from the questionnaire replies of eight hundred students of the Jamaica Training School, New York City, December, 1926. The questionnaire in full and the conditions under which it was given were reported by the author in the *School Review*, January, 1928. This study is based on data not fully treated in the above article, and which were obtained from student answers to the following items of the questionnaire:

"What were your favorite subjects in the elementary school?"

"What were your favorite subjects in the high school."

"What subjects in the training school have been easiest for you? Why?"

¹R. S. Woodworth, *Psychology, A Study of Mental Life*, p. 180.

"What subjects in the training school have been most difficult for you? Why?"

"What subjects in the training school do you like best? Why?"

"What subjects in the training school do you like least? Why?"

The percentage distributions of subjects liked "best," subjects liked "least," most "difficult" subjects, and "easy" subjects are given in tables I, II, III, and IV below.

TABLE I

Percentage distribution of subjects liked "best," rated by eight hundred training-school students.

	PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS
Arithmetic	8
Sociology	17
Psychology	28
Reading	3
Literature	1
Speech Improvement	1
Grammar	1
Physical Training	5
Music	8
Drawing	8
Nature Study	4
Penmanship	1
Observation and Practice	1
Library Practice	1
Geography	4
History	6
Management	1
Methods of Thinking	2
	<hr/> 100

Typical reasons given for liking subjects "best" were: "Like the teacher," "Teacher is interesting," "The teacher is interested in her subject," "The teacher is enthusiastic," "The teacher is pleasant," "Teacher is agreeable," "The teacher is alive," "The teacher has 'pep,'" "The subject is new," "Subject gives something to think about," "Subject will help me," "I can apply the subject,"

"The subject is related to life," "Can use it in teaching,"
 "We can discuss things in class," "I feel free in the class."

TABLE II

Percentage distribution of "easy" subjects, rated by
 eight hundred training-school students.

	PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS
Arithmetic	17
Sociology ..	15
Psychology ..	19
Reading ..	1
Literature	6
Grammar ..	1
Physical Training	4
Music	11
Drawing	8
Nature Study	7
Penmanship ..	2
Geography ..	4
History ..	4
Methods of Thinking	1
Observation and Practice ..	0
Speech Improvement	0
Management	0
	<hr/> 100

Typical reasons given for rating the subjects "easy" were: "The teacher makes things clear," "The teacher puts enthusiasm into her work," "Teacher makes things real," "Teacher holds good reviews," "Teacher illustrates a lot," "Subject matter is worth while," "The subject matter is interesting," "Can make good grades in subject," "I have a knack for the subject," "Subject suits my mental constitution," "It is easy for me," "Always liked the subject," "Comes natural to me."

The percentage distribution of reasons for liking subjects "best" and for rating them "easy" may be classified under the following three headings:

	PER CENT
1. Favorable liking for the teacher.....	60
2. A liking for the subject matter.....	27
3. Ability to succeed in the subject	13
	<hr/> 100

Perhaps the most surprising element in the above summary is the prominent place occupied by the teacher as the most important factor in forming positive attitudes towards studies. We should expect this to be the case in the elementary school, and to some extent in the high school, but in the training school we should look for a larger percentage of reasons less personal than the ones given.

TABLE III

Percentage distribution of subjects liked "least," rated by eight hundred training-school students.

	PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS
Arithmetic	6
Sociology	6
Psychology	3
Reading	8
Speech Improvement	17
Grammar	2
Physical Training	1
Music	12
Drawing	19
Nature Study	6
Penmanship	6
Observation and Practice	1
Library Practice	3
History	8
Methods of Thinking	2
Literature	0
Geography	0
Management	0
	<hr/> 100

The reasons given for the ratings in Table III find typical expression in the following statements: "I dislike the teacher," "The teacher has it in for me," "The teacher is harsh," "I can't please the teacher," "The teacher drives too much," "Too much memory work," "Too much note taking," "I can't use it in teaching," "Do not see need of the subject," "It does not apply to life," "Too much theory," "Not practical," "Subject too dry," "Will not help me as a teacher."

TABLE IV

Percentage distribution of most "difficult" subjects rated by eight hundred training-school students.

	PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS
Music	18
Arithmetic	11
Physical Training	11
Psychology	9
Reading	6
Literature	6
Speech Improvement	6
Geography	6
Nature Study	5
Library Practice	5
Sociology	4
Drawing	3
History	3
Management	3
Grammar	1
Penmanship	1
Observation and Practice	1
Methods of Thinking.	1
	<hr/> 100

The subjects were "difficult" because: "The teacher does not help," "The teacher hurries too much," "I don't like the teacher," "Class goes too fast," "Hard parts are not explained," "Questions are not welcome," "Hard parts are not illustrated," "I dislike the subject," "I always hated the subject," "Subject was always difficult," "I never could get along in it," "I have no aptitude for the subject," "Subject not suited to me," "Do not have time enough to spend on it."

The reasons for disliking subjects and for finding them difficult, illustrated under Tables III and IV, may be grouped under the following headings:

	PER CENT
1 Unfavorable attitude towards, or dislike for the teacher	20
2. A dislike for the subject matter.	21
3. Lack of ability to get along in the subject.	59
	<hr/> 100

From the above summaries it may be inferred that the teacher is a strong factor in stimulating students to form attitudes towards the subjects of the curriculum; in the last summary, negative in 20 per cent of the cases. It may be comforting to observe that the teacher as a factor in forming attitudes, is positive in 60 per cent of the cases and only negative in 20 per cent of them, but the questions suggest themselves: (1) How may we reduce the negatives? (2) Should mature students in a vocational school "like" subjects, and find them "easy" because of their favorable attitudes towards the teacher? If students like or dislike subjects because they have personal feelings towards instructors, is there an indication that the significance of the subjects has not been related to the future vocational success of the students? May the subject-matter of the training-school curricula be sufficiently motivated because of its intrinsic values so that it will be liked for its usefulness, and the opportunities it offers in the preparation of successful teachers? Can the subjects be made so vital that training-school students may see their potency and worth for enriching the lives of their future students, and as a means for making their own life experiences more meaningful in art, science, and culture?

If likes or dislikes for normal-school subjects are formed even in twenty per cent of cases, because of the personal qualities or characteristics of instructors, would it be helpful for teachers in normal schools occasionally to take an inventory of their teaching personalities with a view to finding out just what qualities were helpful or negative in stimulating subject attitudes on the part of their students?

It may be noted from the summary of Tables III and IV that subjects were "disliked" or found "difficult" in fifty-nine per cent of the cases because of the lack of ability on the part of the student to get along well or succeed with them. No data are at hand to enumerate or to analyze the reasons for these self-appraised disabilities of the stu-

dents, or to trace their origins. Where the same "favorite" or "liked" subjects were mentioned on the three levels of elementary school, high school, and training school, the data indicate that in fifty-three per cent of the cases, the subjects liked "best" in the training school, were also "favorite" subjects in the elementary and high school. This may suggest that positive subject attitudes, in many instances, are formed rather early in school life. This may also be true for negative subject attitudes, but the data do not warrant such an inference. It is to be regretted that we have no information on the "primary dislikes" and the instances of "conditioned" reflexes responsible for the twenty-one per cent of negative attitudes toward the content of the subjects mentioned in the summary. Perhaps in the near future we shall learn more about such problems when we realize as teachers the tremendous social forces and educational drives resulting from students' likes and dislikes in schools, and be stimulated to devise new plans or revise old ones for directing what is perhaps the most lasting and consequential residuum of school life.

In conclusion, this study like most studies based on questionnaires, can be at most only suggestive of more refined methods, or more conclusive data, or of other questions needing answers or of problems needing solution. Perhaps the data presented here may lead us to ask whether or not we are giving sufficient emphasis to the subjects of study in our training schools as to make them vital factors in forming positive professional and life attitudes. Secondly, How may we find out most accurately the qualities of our teaching personality that are so potent in forming positive or negative attitudes on the part of the students towards the subjects we teach? And finally, as teachers should we be as much concerned with students' attitudes towards subject matter as we are with the quantity of it that they are supposed to assimilate?

A GUIDE FOR SOCIAL INTERACTION STUDIES OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

L. D. ZELENY

Since teachers are coming to make individual studies of social interactions in school and community, they may find a guide for such studies helpful. A guide for such work, adapted from many sources, is presented in this paper. It has been found usable.

I. GENERAL SUGGESTIONS

All items should be collected with extreme care and neatness because others may need to study the data. The report should be in narrative form. All sources of information should be presented. Completeness is desirable.

II. IDENTIFICATION

Identification sign? Real name? Color? Date of birth? (how verified) Child's address? Living with whom? Phone? Religious preference? Achievement in school subjects as measured by standard tests?

III. THE OCCASION FOR THE STUDY

Indicate the present relationships between the teacher and pupil, pupil and other pupils, pupil and parents. In the case of a problem child indicate what the child had done and what has been done to him in return.

IV. DETAILED BEHAVIOR

(Give details under appropriate items.)

a. Ethical conduct.¹ Stealing? Running away? Tantrums? Sex difficulties? Obstinacy? Repression? Interests? Companions? Attitude toward authority? Lying? Obscene notes? Cheating? Speech difficulties?

b. Emotion behavior.² Even tempered or moody? Easily discouraged or persistent? Generally depressed or

¹"Outline for Social History" (mimeographed), Minneapolis Child Guidance Clinic, 1927.

²Willard Olson, "Behavior Rating Scale," Bureau of Education Research, University of Minnesota.

cheerful? Sympathetic? Hot-headed or self-controlled? Worrying or carefree? Cooperative or non-cooperative? Suspicious or trustful? Calm or excitable? Negativistic or suggestible? Impulsive or cautious?

c. Social adaptation.² Quiet or talkative? Shy or bold? Repulsive or magnetic? Flexible or inflexible? Rude or courteous? Self-assertive? Criticize others?

d. Physical bearing.² Repulsive or admirable? Weak or strong? Easily fatigued or vigorous? Sissy or masculine? Tomboy or clinging vine? (if girl) Fearful or daredevil? Slovenly or neat in appearance?

e. Mental attitudes.² Absorbed or alert? Attention easily distracted or good? Slow or quick thinker? Lazy or active? Indifferent or interested?

V. PERSONAL HEALTH DATA¹

Height? Weight? Posture? Gait? Deformities? Skull? Jaw? Ears? Eyes? Hair? Skin? Scars? Tonsils? Adenoids? Heart? Hour of retiring? Hour of rising? Night terrors? Restless? Appetite? Hours for meals? Food fads? Coffee? Tea? Nail biting? Thumb sucking? Enuresis? What has been done about these things? Any effects?

VI. SOCIAL BACKGROUNDS¹

a. Group memberships of the child. Primary? Secondary? Nominal? Vital? Formal? Informal? Is the child isolated? Behavior patterns of the groups with which he associates? How does the group control him? Others? In what groups has the child been in the past?

b. Social backgrounds of the school. Cultural patterns of the population? Races? Social classes? Educational levels? Interactions of the school with other community institutions.

¹Frederic M Thrasher, "Social Backgrounds and Education," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, October, 1927.

c. The home (to be entered only with the principal's permission). General condition? Number of rooms? Number in family? Sleeping arrangements? Method of discipline? Frequency of church attendance? Family recreational practices? Ages and educational levels of other children in the family? Physical condition, education, and religion of father and mother?

d. Social attitudes. What are the attitudes of parents, brothers, sisters, companions, teachers, and other adults towards the child?

e. The school. Progress record? If failing, why?

VII. THE PUPIL-TEACHER INTERVIEW

a. Techniques for interviewing.⁴ (1) Let the child feel "he is dealing with a friend who knows the worst (or best) about him and is still a friend." (2) Discuss the child's problems "with him from his point of view." (3) "Take for granted all the known aspects of the child's difficulties." (4) Be nonshockable. (5) Search for strength and build on it. (6) Use clear low voice. (7) Do not hurry the child. (8) Assume the child is willing to cooperate. (9) Adjust yourself to the child's mood. (10) Talk the child's language. (11) Recognize the good in the child. (12) Help the child to make his own decisions. (13) Do not let the child feel isolated. (14) Minimize the seriousness of the child's position. (15) Do not be afraid to smile. (16) Remember the "yes response" technique.

b. Factors to look for in an interview.⁵ Child's idea of success in school. Why does he like or dislike school? His teachers? His classmates? His companions? What are his ambitions? Can he scrap? What does he like or dis-

⁴Pearl Salisbury, "Techniques in Case Work," *The Family*, July, 1927; Lucy Wright, "The Worker's Attitude as an Element in Social Case Work," *Ibid.*, July, 1924; Mary G. Brisley, "An Attempt to Articulate Processes," *Ibid.*, vol 5, pp 157-161, Helen P. Kington, "How Do We Affect Leadership," *Ibid.*, vol 6, pp. 290-292, and others

⁵"Psychiatric Examination of a Child," *Mental Hygiene*, vol 10, pp. 300-306

like at home? Whom does he like and dislike most at home? Why? Of what does he day dream? Are his chums of the same or opposite sex? Can the child explain his misconduct? Of what is he afraid? Why? Behavior of child during the interview (facial expression, gestures, tone of voice, bodily position). Ambitions? Age of occupational fixation.

VIII. SOCIO-ANALYSIS

The descriptive terms used may show process of conflict, supplementation, submission, withdrawal, or avoidance.⁶ The explanation should show these processes in specific detail—how one process leads to another. When behavior can not be explained in functional terms it may be theoretically accounted for in terms of the four desires for recognition, response, new experience, and security.⁷ The terms, transference, sublimation, compensation, rationalization, Narcissus complex, Oedipus complex, electra complex, and inferiority or failure complex may also be convenient.⁸

IX. SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

The socio-analysis may be suggestive of other social stimuli which may cause different responses. Certain factors in the social or subsocial environment should be changed to effect changed behavior in the child. The test of the analysis is socially adjusted behavior.

⁶E. H. Sutherland, *Lectures*.

⁷W. I. Thomas, *The Unadjusted Girl*

⁸E. W. Burgess, "Outline for Social Analysis" (mimeographed).

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

EDITORIAL NOTE: *It is designed to make this department a clearing house for (1) information about current research projects of interest in educational sociology and (2) ideas with reference to research methods and techniques in this field. Readers are urged to report projects and suggestions as to methods of research. This department desires to encourage and stimulate cooperation in research.*

New York Society for Experimental Study of Education

The New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education is an organization for the scientific study of educational problems. It has a membership of more than fifteen hundred men and women recruited from all ranks of the teaching profession. Its aim is threefold: (1) To afford a clearing house of ideas for those who are engaged in experimental studies in education. (2) To spread the experimental idea in education, to report the results of work done elsewhere, and to interest educators in the experimental method of attack on their problems. (3) To plan and carry on experimental studies in education.

It brings together educational specialists from Columbia University, New York University, City College, Hunter College, and the superintendents, principals, and teachers of New York City schools, and focuses their attention upon experimental studies in education. It is organized into thirty-seven sections, representing the important fields of elementary and secondary education.

Some of the thirty-seven sections of the Society of particular interest to educational sociology are as follows: Backward Children, Gifted Children, Character Education, Vocational Guidance, Industrial Education, Organization of High Schools, Physical Education, Maladjusted Children, Health Education, Junior High-School Problems, and Adult Education.

Further information as to the work of the society may be obtained from Mr. J. Carleton Bell, Townsend Harris

Hall, Amsterdam Avenue and 138th Street, New York City.

National Scholarships in Child Development

The Committee on Child Development of the National Research Council is administering national scholarships in Child Development which are awarded by the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial.

The scholarships aim to prepare qualified workers who will increase scientific knowledge of the child along various lines and bring this knowledge to parents and others concerned with child life.

The appointments prepare for research and practice in fields connected with the mental and physical health and growth of children and lead to the following types of service:

1. Research in child development, all fields.
2. Resident instruction in child development and welfare in school, college, and university.
3. Child welfare service in clinics, institutions, social service, health organizations, schools, nursery-school teaching, etc.
4. Parent education, in field organization, study group, leadership, extension programs, and resident instruction in college or university.

Among the specific fields of investigation open to scholars are anatomy, anthropology, anthropometry, education, genetics, health, mental hygiene, nutrition, orthopedics, pediatrics, physical education, physiology, psychology, and sociology, all as applied to the study of the young child and to parent education.

In the training of scholars a well-rounded program in child development is sought, rather than the satisfaction of university requirements for advanced degrees. Consequently, scholars are not always able to apply the full term of scholarship study towards meeting requirements for the doctor's degree.

The scholarships are open to college graduates of the United States and Canada with at least one year of graduate work who have had training in sciences basic to the study of child development. A limited number of scholarships are available to men who are appointed in exceptional cases.

The basic scholarship stipend is \$1,000 for nine months, with an option of an additional \$200 for a summer session of six weeks.

Further details with reference to these scholarships may be obtained from Dr. L. R. Marston, Executive Secretary, Committee on Child Development, National Research Council, Washington, D. C.

New York State Crime Commission's Study of Truancy

The Sub-Commission on Causes of the New York State Crime Commission composed of William Lewis Butcher, Chairman, Jane M. Hoey, and Joseph M. McGinnies, which has been conducting a series of social studies on the causes of crime under the direction of Harry M. Shulman, Research Worker, has published its report on 201 truants in New York City schools.

This study of truancy was made possible through the splendid cooperation of the Bureau of Attendance of the New York City Board of Education. The schedules were drawn up by the Sub-Committee on Causes and the clerical work of preparing all the tables was done by the Bureau of Attendance. This study consists of an analysis of 201 cases chosen at random from those who had been persistent truants during 1926. The material was gathered by means of a questionnaire which was filled out by the attendance officers from information obtained from the children themselves, from parents, from the teachers, and from school records. The total number of children committed as truants during 1926 was 626. The number committed during 1926 was above average; therefore, the group of cases studied represented one-third of the total group committed

to truant school during any year and was for that reason regarded as an adequate sampling of cases. The group represented only children in the Borough of Manhattan.

The report takes up the home data of truants and their parental conditions, the characteristics of the individual truant, and the reasons for his maladjustment in school.

The committee has recently completed a study of 250 truants in New York City who were followed up in the five years subsequent to their first commitment to the truant school to determine the nature of their future behavior difficulties. This report will be available shortly.

Institute for Social Research

The seventh annual meeting of the Institute for Social Research was held at the University of Chicago, July 25 to 28, 1928, under the auspices of the Society for Social Research. Papers were presented by L. L. Thurstone, Edward Sapir, Ellsworth Faris, and Herbert Blumer. A number of reports on research projects now in process were presented and four round tables were organized as follows: The Ecology of Urban and Rural Communities, led by Jesse F. Steiner, Social Movements and the Political Process, by Robert E. Park, The Family, by E. Franklin Frazier, and Methodology, by Floyd M. House.

Hanover Conference, Social Science Research Council

The annual summer conference of the Social Science Research Council was held at Hanover, New Hampshire, from August 18 to September 1, 1928. The following committees reported during the conference: Corporate Relations, Population, Interracial Relations, and Scientific Method in the Social Sciences.

BOOK REVIEWS

School and Society in Chicago, by GEORGE S. COUNTS.
New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1928.

Among the many books which come to the hands of the reviewer, one finds generally that most of them are restatements of what has already been written by some one else. It is therefore refreshing to find an author who strikes a new note and emphasizes a new point of view. Professor Counts has succeeded in taking a body of facts with which every educator is more or less familiar and giving them an original interpretation. Using the experiences of Mr. McAndrew, superintendent of the Chicago schools, as a basis, the author has vividly and dramatically analyzed the social forces operating upon the administrator of public schools in Chicago. Moreover, he has made clear the fact that these forces are not merely operative on the shores of Lake Michigan. They are present and must be taken into account to a greater or less degree by every school administrator in America. The subtitle of the book, therefore, might well be "A Sociological Basis of School Administration in America." This point is emphasized in a note of the publishers as follows: "This book should be read by all who are interested in the future of public education in America. While it is a dramatic and accurate account of the experience of the second city of the nation with public education—an experience which culminated recently in an assault on the liberty of the school system and in the deposition of the superintendent of schools—it is much more than a report of happenings on the shores of Lake Michigan. It is essentially an analysis of the forces which condition the administration of education in industrial society."

This book is an important contribution to the subject matter of the newly developing science of educational sociology. Moreover, its vigorous style will gain for it a wide reading among the lay public.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

Technique of Child Analysis, by ANNA FREUD. Washington, D. C.: Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Company, 1928, 58 pages.

Miss Freud's monograph is made up of a series of lectures given before a congress of psychoanalysts in Vienna. She has presented the idea that, although to her way of thinking children with infantile neuroses can really be analyzed, the method of analysis employed with adults cannot be applied without modification to children. In her presentation, she has discussed the method of child analysis, the role of transference in child analysis, and the relation of child analysis to education.

One of the salient points of Miss Freud's discussion rests on the fact that whereas adults come to analysis voluntarily, seeking relief consciously from a known (or suspected) disturbance and withal well disposed toward analysis as a method, children are brought to analysis by some one—usually a parent—for purposes which the child rarely suspects; the ailment is not always recognized by the child. The analyst faces the necessity of winning the child's confidence and loyalty by appealing to its emotions. Transference of emotional attachments of adults from figures of a remote past which lives only in the patient's memory is simple, but in the case of children whose emotions are centered upon parental figures which are so vividly a part of the present, such transference is almost impossible.

At best, the child analyst finds herself sharing the child's love for its parents. Where the child has developed a neurotic antipathy toward her parents, her siblings, her playmates, or her nurse, the analyst utilizes it to work her way into the child's confidence by sharing its aversion. She thus comes into conflict with the persons in whom the neurosis centers.

The significance of analysis of children for education, according to Miss Freud, is this. The child is not an independent personality, it depends too much upon those adults from whom it learns of the demands which society is to make upon it. So closely is the child bound to these adults—parents, nurses, teachers—that those habits of conformity which they have managed to build up in the child rest almost completely upon the emotional tie between them and the child. When the tie is severed, the habits are destroyed. (It is significant that Miss Freud uses the same example to bring home her point, which Dr. Watson uses in his *Psychological Care and Training of the Infant and Child* to emphasize the value of routine in the rearing of children.) It is not sufficient, as is done in adult analysis, to inform the child of the nature of its "illness" and to allow the child to "wish" and to accomplish its own cure. Nor can the child be separated from those figures in its environment who have brought on the neurosis. On the other hand, the child can not be returned to the environment which has brought its illness about; it cannot be returned to the selfsame set-up of personalities to effect a cure with their help, unless they are educated to the roles they are to play in the correction of the neurosis. Therefore, be they parents, nurses, or teachers, they must come under the direction of the analyst who must be a sort of *liaison* officer during the cure; they must be educated to a new point of view. They must cooperate rather than be in conflict with the analyst.

The analyst assumes a new and paradoxical role in her work with children, she must "analyze and educate, in one breath permit and forbid, loosen and hold in check again." She must encourage the confidential enumeration of neurotic acts and description of questionable behavior, with the accompanying pleasure to the child of experiencing the emotional reaction to the, by now, beloved analyst; at the same time,

she must train the child to desist from his neuroticism. Miss Freud thinks this role difficult.

The tenor of the monograph is somewhat apologetic. It seems that Miss Freud feels she must defend, first of all, her deviations from adult analysis, and, secondly, her disappointing lack of accomplishment in child analysis. But she promises great things for the future. Because the neurotic child "need only go a short distance back [in its life] to enter again the normal road adapted to his real nature"; because in the "moderation of the rigidity of the super-ego" of the child, the analyst can secure the cooperation of the parents; because the analyst of children can not only help them to adapt themselves to the environment but can also adapt the environment to them, Miss Freud feels that, in child analysis, she will be able to "attain alterations, improvements and recoveries of which in adult analysis [I] cannot even allow [myself] to dream."

IRVING ASTRACHAN

Training Children to Study, by BESSIE W. STILLMAN. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1928.

This book is a practical treatise dealing with the problem of training pupils to analyze subject matter, to discriminate between major and minor points, to perceive relationships, to evaluate and verify the findings. In brief, the author's purpose is to show how school subjects in grades five, six, and seven can be utilized in training children to think. The discussion is based primarily upon Dewey's *How We Think*. The introduction was written by Frank McMurry and the introductory chapter on "The Place of Thinking in Education" by Boyd H. Bode. The chapter titles are as follows:

Stimulating the Questioning Attitude of Mind

Helping the Child to Get Food for Thought

Helping the Child to Organize His Facts

Teaching the Child How to Make the Most Economical Use of His Memory

Making Ideas Function

Self-Expression Through English Composition

Mastery of Certain Common Tools

Education—A Process for the Cultivation of Attitudes

The author's discussion is based on sound principles of psychology. Each point is driven home by wisely selected illustrations. Only once did the reviewer come across what seemed to be questionable psychology. It appears that the author accepts the implications of James's statement, "Keep the faculty of effort alive in you by a little gratuitous exercise every day," without qualifications. To the reviewer, it is not gratuitous work for its own sake, but gratuitous work that good may come from it that counts.

If pupils are taught to study in the way recommended by Miss Stillman, their educational outcomes will be greatly increased in value.

Their ability to think and study would be superior, and their attitudes would play a greater role in their lives.

The book will be extremely useful to teachers of the intermediate and upper grades.

CHARLES E. SKINNER

Elements of Rural Sociology, by NEWELL L. SIMS. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1927.

The teacher who would place on his reference shelf a few of the best books of the time on the social problems that are agitating the world and that are of value in his preparation as a teacher will find Dr Sims's book of especial value. In fact, the reviewer regards it as being of greater value for this purpose than any other that has yet appeared in this field. The author has gathered a mass of very pertinent material relating to rural life, its people, its culture, its tradition, its standards of living, its schools, its churches, and with consummate skill he has organized this material and interpreted results with fairness and accuracy.

Dr Sims has no theory to expound, no case to prove. He presents his conclusions as facts and figures gathered from varying and widely separated sources. There is no dodging of facts nor sentimental glossing of situations. Tenant farming, the rural church, and the rural school are discussed in separate chapters with a detachment that is refreshing. Dr Sims is not pessimistic in his outlook. When in his later chapters he comes to the discussion of suggestions for improvement, his work is quite as strong as elsewhere.

Though prepared primarily as a text for classroom use, its success there is open to doubts owing to the style in which it is written, but as a work of reference and even as a guide for the general reader, its value cannot be doubted.

G. O. MUDOE

Adult Learning, by EDWARD L. THORNDIKE. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1928.

This volume is a summary of the results of an investigation in adult learning carried on for two years at Teachers College under the direction of Dr. Thorndike. Dr Thorndike has written the book and given his interpretation of the results. It is probably the best book that has been produced in recent years on the technique of research, far better than any of the recent books on the same subject. It should be of value to the research and graduate students who are endeavoring to master techniques in research. It is exceedingly suggestive and stimulating.

The purpose of the book is to report the facts concerning changes in the amount and changes in the nature of ability to learn from about the age of 15 to about the age of 45 and especially from the age of 25

to the age of 45. This information should be useful in the guidance of adult education. Dr. Thorndike states that there has never been an extensive and systematic inquiry seeking to discover whether and to what extent infancy, childhood, and adolescence do have, by nature, an advantage over the years from 20 to 40 in respect to ability to learn. From the study Dr. Thorndike says we may note the following facts:

"1. The differences in rate of learning between old and young are small in comparison with the differences within either group

2. When other factors than age are equalized or 'partialled out,' the influence approaches zero."

In the chapter on the learning of adults of inferior intelligence, he makes the following significant statement: "It seems certain that these adults learned these school subjects more rapidly than they would have learned them at the age of ten or twelve." This fact throws light on certain school conditions and it may be possible that children who do not get along well in school during their early years may do much better when they become adults.

It was found that the drop in learning ability in twenty years from 21 to 41 in this group due to age alone is about one half of one per cent per year. It was found that the results with adult men of low level of intelligence support the conclusions that the curve of ability to learn in relation to age from 22 to 42 is a very slow decline and is no greater for inferior intelligence than for superior. It was found that adults learn much less than they might, partly because they underestimate their power of learning, and partly because of unpleasant attention and comment. The fact is that adults learn less than they might because they do not care enough about learning.

In the chapter on "Practical Applications" some comforting suggestions are made for those who are approaching the age of 40 when it is stated that " . . . nobody under forty-five should restrain himself from trying to learn anything because of a belief or fear that he is too old to be able to learn it. Nor should he use that fear as an excuse for not learning anything which he ought to learn. If he fails in learning it, inability due directly to age will rarely, if ever, be the reason. The reason will commonly be one or more of these:

1. He lacks and always has lacked the capacity to learn that particular thing.

2. His desire to learn it is not strong enough to cause him to give proper attention to it.

3. The ways and means which he adopts are inadequate, and would have been so at any age, to teach him that thing.

4. He has habits or ideas or other tendencies which interfere with the new acquisition, and which he is unable or unwilling to alter.

The book is illustrated by graphs and tables. It is a most valuable contribution to the field of educational psychology and to the education of adults.

CHARLES E. BENSON

A State Educational System at Work, by M. V. O'SHEA.
Madison, Wis.' The University of Wisconsin, 1927,
367 pages.

This study is supplementary to the volume entitled *Public Education in Mississippi* by the same author. In the language of the foreword, it is the "report of the intellectual status and educational progress of pupils in the elementary and high schools and freshmen in the colleges, public and private, of Mississippi, together with recommendations relating to the modification of educational procedure in the State." In this book, Professor O'Shea makes a notable contribution to current educational literature. He succeeds most admirably in presenting scientific data in such manner that the layman "knows what it is all about." At the same time, he provides a model of technique for the professional student of administrative tests. This volume might well serve as a text for the classroom of a teachers college.

The author calls attention to high degree of correlation between the results of the measurement survey and the conclusions otherwise arrived at and published in the preceding volume. This confirmative use of tests and measures, paralleling and checking general estimates and judgments is too infrequently stressed by devotees of scientific measurement. Professor O'Shea provides us an example of intelligence tests intelligently administered. "No effort was made to measure the success of the schools in training for manual pursuits or for social efficiency or adaptability"—implies much for future surveys as new ways of testing are devised.

We are all conscious of the perplexing Negro problem which confronts the Southern States, and we are conscious that the problem, at least indirectly, affects us all. The author himself evidently shares this feeling because he presents "a vast amount of data" relative to Negro education in Mississippi. It seems, however, to this reader that the comparative data include too small a proportion of Negroes. While we concede the "smallness of the probable error" in "a fair sampling of all possible measurements," we note that "a fair sampling" of the White school children is *seven tenths* of the White school population, and "a fair sampling" of the Negro school children is *three tenths* of the Negro school population. By way of illustrating the foregoing, in actual application, we find that the author's conclusions as to the intelligence, advancement, and achievement of Negro children of 6 years, in cities over 2500 in population is based on a study of only 31 individuals whereas the study of the White children of 6 years includes 88. Also 538 White children of 10 years are studied and 175 Negroes of the same age. And yet Mississippi is more black than white.

A few of the facts brought out by the survey are quite unique aside from their significance. Table III, page 65, shows the chronological age and grade distribution of the public-school children of 830 cities outside of Mississippi. Tables VI and XI, pages 69 and 78, show like statistics for White and Negro Mississippi cities over 2500 in population.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
U S.	502,797	384,392	368,654	363,100	352,419	326,384	280,413	231,177	208,218	135,978	93,521	73,399
Miss. (W) .	299	427	1025	1114	1104	1234	1290	969	1493	1208	1137	922
Miss. (N) ...	128	214	396	348	296	287	283	168	281	296	98	95

The United States enrollment is highest in grade 1 and steps down each year to grade 12. The enrollment curve in Mississippi provides an interesting contrast. The highest White enrollment is in grade 9 and the highest Negro enrollment is in grade 3.

Again the survey finds that the psychological tests place an unusually large number of children in grades 3, 4, and 5 in the "genius" class. Most of these geniuses seem to disappear, however, and are not found higher up. Yet paradoxically the median for the White high schools of the State is 98, which is higher than the average for high schools outside of Mississippi. Other psychological tests rate the freshmen of Mississippi colleges lower than the freshmen in colleges outside the State. In connection with this and in fairness to all college freshmen it may be said that data on freshmen is the least reliable of all data. This may be due to any of various reasons, extracurricular activities, the lack of adjustment to new surroundings, organized effort within the institution to convince the freshman that he is a "nit-wit"; or, because of a temporary determination on his own part that, having arrived, he "ain't goin' to work no more."

The Millsaps freshmen outclassed all other freshmen of the state in the survey's psychological test, but it was discovered that the Millsaps group had been tested under the auspices of a teacher's college a few weeks previously. So it seems that one can be somewhat rehearsed or crammed for a measurement of original capacity.

The message of the survey to Mississippians is that there is a wide disparity of educational opportunity within the State and that the State as a whole must set up and finance an equalization program. It appears that many rural sections are too poor or too inert to provide for their own educational needs. In view of the rural problem and the tremendous burden of devising and financing a suitable education for the large Negro population, the local resident will find much comfort in the author's assurance that the intelligence and achievement of the White school children of Mississippi compare favorably with those of the country at large, that Mississippi has a better record for retention of

pupils (White) through the high-school course than has any other state or group of states; and that she stands near the top among the states in the proportion of White men and women who attend college. In part, the author may have gone so far in his reassurances as to invite legislative procrastination when he closes the volume with the following paragraph.

"RESUME

Mississippi pupils in communities of all sizes in every grade of the elementary school make a good showing, taken as a whole, in respect to the use they make of their intellectual endowments. The pupils in towns and small communities with inferior school facilities make as good a showing in achievement quotients as do the pupils in larger communities. This suggests that pupils in rural districts may be less distracted from school work than are pupils in larger communities, and they may possess greater interest in school work and greater endurance, industry, and ambition to succeed, since they have rather meager educational opportunities as compared with pupils in the larger places."

FORTHCOMING ARTICLES

Education in Soviet Armenia. Part II—The Complex Method of Teaching, by George M. Wilcox.

Children Crying for the Moon, by Agnes M. Conklin.

The Sociological and Educational Significance of Jewish Schools in New York, by Aaron D. Fleshler.

A Socio-Educational Philosophy of the Curriculum, by Robert W. Frederick.

United States History Contributions to Projects in Health Education, by Mary Moriarty.

Curriculum Building and the New Social Sciences, by Guy V. Price.

Reading Musical Programs Intelligently, by Henry Harap.

Sociology Applied in Curriculum Making, by George A. Retan.

How Many Colleges? by Stephen G. Rich.

Handedness, by Ira M. Gast.

The Jews' Race or Conglomerate, by Stephen G. Rich.

The Socially Efficient Community, by David Snedden.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

The readers of *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY* are apprised of the work of the National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology.

The purpose of the Society, as stated in its constitution, is "the promotion of the scientific study of educational sociology."

Educators who were studying the application of sociology to education had occasionally arranged formal programs in connection with the meetings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association and of the American Sociological Society as far back as 1913. This Society was formally organized in Cleveland in 1923; since then it has met twice each year

OFFICERS FOR 1928-1929

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Henry W. Holmes, Harvard University
Charles E. Martz, Cleveland School of Education

Mr. Nels Anderson, the author of the widely known book on the "Hobo," is teaching sociology in the new Seth Low Junior College, which is a part of the expanded educational program of Columbia University. Mr. Anderson is teaching an introductory course in educational sociology in New York University during the present year.

Mr. Russell S. Woglom of the High School of Glen Ridge, N. J., became supervising principal of the schools at High Bridge, N. J., succeeding Mr. Robert Parker, who became superintendent at Mount Holly, N. J.

Superintendent H. R. Thompson of the Frisco School, Frisco, Texas, is on leave of absence during the present year (1928-1929) studying for an A.M. degree in the School of Education of New York University.

Miss Katherine Welch of the home economics department of the Shoemaker Junior High School of Philadelphia completed her work for a degree in the October class in the School of Education of New York University during the past summer.

Superintendent of Schools Arthur D. Horton of Weston, West Virginia, resigned during the beginning of the present school year to become superintendent of schools at Ridgefield, Connecticut. Superintendent Horton is working on his doctorate at New York University.

Education through travel is becoming more and more a newer phase of world understanding. The "Floating University" on November 10 left New York on the steamship *President Wilson* for the second world cruise. The "Floating University" has a faculty of more than twenty teachers and instructors and an enrollment of 100 students of secondary, collegiate, and graduate rank. The itinerary covers the leading countries of the world and the cruise is concluded June 10, 1928. Dr. E. A. Ross of the University of Wisconsin is the director of education and Mr. Sydney Greenbie, an author and traveler of world experience, is the director of the cruise. A complete program of study, recreation, and social welfare is planned and carried out. Many of the students will receive university credit for the work done on this cruise.

Mr. J. E. Burk, dean of men and associate professor of English of Denton Teachers College, San Angelo, Texas, is an instructor in the department of English in the School of Education of New York University.

Mr. James E. Wardle, formerly critic of junior-high-school mathematics at the East Stroudsburg State Teachers College, is now supervising principal of the South Huntington schools. Mr. Wardle received his A.M. degree from New York University in June, 1926.

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STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC.,
REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912

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State of New York }
County of Albany } ss

Before me, a Notary Public in and for the State and County aforesaid, personally appeared
A J Fowers, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is
the Business Manager of The Journal of Educational Sociology and that the following is,
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EDITORIAL NOTES

The twentieth century has perhaps witnessed more new developments in education than has any other like period in the history of civilization. The reasons for these new educational developments are, fundamentally, the rapidly changing civilization characteristic of this period and the corresponding development of a new philosophy of education. Moreover, the new philosophy basic to education is supported by an experimental approach to educational theory and practice. Educational sociology represents one aspect of this experimental approach.

As an educational sociologist, it is proper to emphasize the important place that sociology is coming to take in determining scientific educational procedure and practice. It is from the point of view of the educational sociologist that we wish to approach the discussion of a new movement which has had rapid development and which has come to occupy an indispensable place in a modern educational program; namely, the parents' organization, whether these be parent-teachers associations, mothers' clubs, associations of parents, or whatnot. These organizations have developed out of a very definitely felt need—the need of a better un-

derstanding of the school's point of view in the education of the child. They have not always wisely devoted themselves to the solution of the problems that gave them being. As a matter of fact, we note two divergent trends in the development of parents' organizations both of which are vicious and cannot be justified on sociological ground; namely, the development of an association that feels called upon to determine the educational policies and program of the school itself on the one hand and the association that uses the school building as a place of meeting to engage in philanthropies, charities, and political and social enterprises that have nothing to do with the school on the other. This discussion has nothing to do with the use of the school as a social center, but with organizations of the parents in response to the indicated need.

The first type of organization makes itself more than useless by interfering with the constructive work of the school and the second loses its worth by doing a perfectly legitimate piece of social activity but one that makes no contribution to the welfare of the school or the education of the children in the community. There are certain principles that must be kept in mind and made to guide the work of parents' organizations if they are to be effective. These might be summarized as follows:

1. The schools exist for the parents and their children. Therefore the parent must understand the school, its theory and practice, in order that the work of education may be fully effective in the community.

2. Education is a common task and goes on outside as well as inside of the schoolroom. The effect of the work in the classroom must be measured by the behavior of children outside of school. Parents cannot judge or participate in this educational process without intimate knowledge of both theory and practice.

3. The development of ethical, civic, health, and other habits and practices in the schools depends upon the adequacy of parental understanding and support, since the actual development of practice in these respects must rest with the parents themselves. These are samples of principles which must underlie the work of parent organizations and suffice to indicate several serious tasks to which they must devote themselves. In the first place, they have a serious job in simply understanding what the school is trying to do and, secondly, of making a direct contribution to the efforts of the school in its endeavors. I might select many examples that would illustrate the operation of these principles.

Let us take the problem of health and limit our discussion to the problem of children's diet or nutrition. What is an adequate diet for children, and to what extent must individual characteristics of a particular child be taken into account in supplying an adequate diet for his growth and development? The school is supposed to know and to impart this knowledge to children, but about all that the school alone can do is to impart this knowledge and give a test to find out whether the knowledge has been mastered. The children may be letter perfect in the mastery of this knowledge and still pursue unwise dietary practices, unless parents carry their end of the burden of educational effort. What the child eats will be determined by what the mother prepares for him to eat and may not relate at all to his needs or what he has learned about his needs in the school-room. The same thing may be said about every particular health practice with which the school is concerned in the education of children. Therefore the task of education in health can only be achieved as a joint task. The same may be said of any worthy end of education. Therefore so long as parent organizations devote themselves exclusively to charitable or other endeavors they fail in successful per-

formance. Modern educators who have a sociological point of view will welcome parents' organizations of the kind that seek to understand the problems of modern education and to cooperate in the joint task of education. Moreover, schools will correspondingly benefit from such a joint enterprise.

CHILDREN CRYING FOR THE MOON

AGNES M. CONKLIN

The business administrator may be said to be a connoisseur in the study of changes. He watches changes in price, demand, market, popular interest, and so on, and his business life is a series of adaptive behaviors to the changes he finds. In the educational world, change is but slowly regarded, and much less studied, although it is absurd to think that schools, which are in a sense, businesses, might not profit from periodic inquiry into the flux of life about them. A school is always in a setting that is not static and school populations must inevitably change in size and quality as time goes on. Does the school know these changes and alter its curriculum accordingly? The problem has not been studied in any wholesale manner so that we can make a glib and sweeping reply to this question, but a glimpse into the facts concerning a typical entering class in a large public high school may be somewhat revealing.

The class chosen for consideration entered the high school one year ago. Two years prior to its entrance, the opening of a new high school in the neighborhood changed the size of the entering group and may have introduced selective factors into the choice of school. By the time this group entered, however, there had been normal readjustment of the numbers for two preceding terms. Comparison of the distribution of I. Q.'s for this group of 801 with the average of the distributions for five preceding classes indicates close similarity. (See table on page 264).

The procedure in dealing with the class was entirely according to custom—registration and testing by means of the Terman group test of mental ability, and organization into class sections on the basis of (1) elementary school record, (2) electives desired, and (3) the I. Q. attained on the group test. The data for the study were

I Q.'S	Average of five classes	The 801
70-79	6.2	4
80-89	51.8	51
90-99	129.4	138
100-109	177.6	212
110-119	164.75	193
120-129	94.4	115
130-139	45.0	64
140-149	10.0	14
150-159	2.6	8
Mean	109.16	110.75
Range	70.159	75-154

compiled from the face record cards in the school files and from three questionnaires, one answered on the day of registration, and two in the first term of residence in the high school. Three full classes composed of students having I. Q.'s below 95 are represented in the class organization, but are so numbered and placed in the group as to conceal their quality. In addition, low I. Q.'s are sorted by chance into some of the other classes; these are late registrants tucked into any sections where the numbers would permit. They have received the same consideration as the others because their programs have been made separately. The table on page 265 gives a bird's-eye view of the class, together with the record of its scholarship in the first term of high-school work.

Some of these facts need interpretation. Sections here are presented in the order of mean I. Q. rating, a distortion of the order usually used to conceal the intellectual quality of the sections. The students in the first term always carry four majors, English and civics, and two electives. The most popular and the most difficult electives are Latin and mathematics; others include Spanish, French, biology, and physics. All subjects except civics are given in "straight" or "slow" progress, the latter referring to the practise of covering two terms of work in three terms. The listing under "Section" describes the course given to classes in accordance with their abilities. It will be seen

Reg	Mn Age	Range of Age	Section	Mn IQ	Range of IQ	Mn Mark	F's In Aver	F's in Electives	
								1.	2
36	6 12 11	0 5 11-13 2 10 2	LMStr	139 86	132- 153- 123-	77 45	2	4	3
35	12 10	11-14 10 9 10	LMStr	130 91	147 128-	75.16	4	3	6
35	12 3	11-13 2 2 9	LMStr	130 00	132 122-	75.61	2	10	6
32	13 4	11-13 10 2 2	LMStr	124.60	128 116-	65 61	3	8	10
33	13 4	11-14 2 2 2	SpMStr	123 18	153 118-	69.57	7	11	17
35	13 6	12-14 0 0 8	LMStr	119 94	122 110-	70 76	6	8	10
35	13 7	12-14 0 0 8	LMStr	116 31	123 111-	64 28	5	6	15
35	13 5	13-14 2 2 9	FrMStr	113 86	117 77-	68.29	2	8	7
36	13 6	12-17 3 3 5	BFrStr	113.17	127 84-	67 37	5	13	8
36	13 9	12-15 0 0 0	LBSr	112 39	121 105-	65.71	5	12	0
32	13 8	12-15 9 2 2	SpMStr	110 63	115 105-	64 33	8	7	16
35	13 10	12-15 4 9 9	LMStr	108 31	115 91-	71.21	3	9	12
30	13 11	12-15 8 7 7	BMStr	107 60	130 95-	59.78	6	13	9
36	13 8	12-15 6 8 8	SpBStr	105 64	152 101-	64 67	2	10	1
35	13 0	12-14 7 10 10	FrMStr	105 57	110 95-	66 93	8	14	13
35	14 4	12-15 6 4 4	FrBStr	101.40	108 95-	68 17	11	21	4
32	14 0	12-16 3 11 11	SpMS1	101.24	116 92-	58 48	16	20	16
36	14 11	12-15 7 8 8	LMS1	100 57	105 92-	63.12	11	13	17
34	13 3	12-15 1 1 1	LBS1	100 06	105 87-	62 08	2	13	3
29	14 4	13-16 5 5 5	FrMS1	99 07	110 92-	60 15	8	11	7
34	14 9	13-15 1 11 11	FrMS1	93 65	95 88-	60 28	6	6	4
35	14 2	13-15 1 4 4	LPS1	90 14	106 75-	55 46	8	9	5
35	15 9	14-17 4 0 0	LPS1	83 77	87 76-	64 13	7	5	7
15	13	12-15	Mixed	107 26	127	68 05	5	4	2
801	9 13	0 9 11-17		109 96	75- 153	66 11	142	238	198
						Failure	17 73% 29 71% 24 72%		

from the table that, on the whole, I. Q. correlates with achievement, but not very positively. The passing mark is 65 per cent. The marks for each student at the close of the term were weighted by the number of times per week the student took the subject and averaged; mean mark for each section is the mean of these averages for each class group.

Considering the substantial number of better than average I. Q.'s in the class and the fact that the first term in high school is usually thought to be the easiest, the average achievement is disappointingly low. The causes of this disparity between ability and performance are no doubt complex. Among bright students, for instance, we tentatively attribute the poor performance to their sudden competition with their peers, a competition not previously furnished in the elementary school. Among students of below-average I. Q., it appears that, even though the school dilutes the course to suit their needs, there is a great deal of failure. Eleven of the twenty-four sections, or 45.83 per cent, have final averages below passing. About 18 per cent of the individuals in the class fail in final average; 30 per cent fail the major language; 25 per cent fail the other elective, science, or mathematics. One speculates on what the percentage of failure might be if no courses had been reduced in difficulty. Perhaps the first-term work in high school is more difficult than we have allowed for, perhaps the marking is too stringent, perhaps the course has not even now been sufficiently modified to ensure a greater proportion of success, perhaps the times have changed and we need a wholly new curriculum. The most discouraging fact is that, even where ability is supposedly present, the performance is not noticeably better in anything like the gradations manifested by the I. Q.'s.

It may be that we are placing too much emphasis upon I. Q., measured, as this one has been, by one group test. The experience in this school has been that the Terman group test has high correlation with the individual Stanford Binet. It should also be mentioned that the school is prepared to correct the error of too great faith in one group test by a follow-up program that attempts to rate the student correctly. If, for instance, a student's performance is better than his I. Q. would seem to warrant, he is in all fairness retested, but his future program depends on his demonstrated performance far more than it

does upon mental measurement. The indications are that these students are not test-wise when they reach the high school. Nearly 9 per cent have never been tested before and those who have been tested have had the experience of an average of 1.73 times. We know from the few who are able to recall the names of tests previously taken that this average of 1.73 includes city-wide performance tests, not of a standardized character. Less than 5 per cent claim to have had the Terman before, but even this percentage has to be discounted because of the obvious confusion in the minds of students who mistake similar tests for identical ones. The possibility that the I. Q.'s are influenced by previous testing is of no moment in this case. It is frequently supposed that the factor of foreign language spoken in the home operates to lower I. Q.'s, but data to be presented later in this writing do not seem to support this notion. So far as we know, these I. Q.'s are as reliable as I. Q.'s anywhere and yet this little sample of what the I. Q.'s are and how they perform under the given circumstances confronts us with many tantalizing questions.

Before we raise the questions, however, we should introduce into the evidence some other facts about this entering class. Why, for instance, has this particular high school been chosen? The students reply:

	<i>Per cent</i>
Location, nearness, or convenience	39 78
Recommendation of friends and relatives	29 34
Preference, just liking it better than other schools	18 48
Scholarship, having to do with the kind of course given and the standard maintained by the school	15 97
Personnel, liking for the principal, the teachers, or the students	1 95
Size and appearance	1, 21
Miscellaneous.	
"Some actress graduated from it"	
"My aunt is a teacher here"	
"Because I wanted to get away from most of the girls in my class so my friend and I decided to come here"	27

It might reasonably be supposed that high schools would be chosen because they give particular courses leading to definite goals, and give them well. Apparently 16 per cent of the class chooses the school on that basis specifically enough to name it. No doubt ideas of scholarship are contained in the other classifications of "Preference" and "Recommendation" but the scholastic idea is not paramount as a determining factor in the choice of school. This tendency to minimize studious reasons for high-school attendance appears to color other aspects of the data and will be referred to again.

It is well known that high-school students tend to make life plans out of all proportion to their abilities to achieve them. Just how impossible of realization the plans really are may be demonstrated by our consideration of the following tables:

Planning to stay in high school:

	<i>Per cent</i>
$\frac{1}{2}$ year	41
1 year.. . . .	1 80
2 years.. . . .	1 94
3 years.. . . .	28
4 years.. . . .	28
17th birthday	83
Unknown.	41
Graduation	94 05
	<hr/>
	100 00

We do not have current comparative data on high-school mortality to give force to our statement that most of these students will be disappointed. In 1922, Counts¹ demonstrated that high-school attendance and graduation was a story of the survival of the fittest and resulted in education of the few. Since then, the high-school population has multiplied eleven times; we know without seeing

¹George S. Counts, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1922)

the facts that mere attendance at high school has not so multiplied the possibilities of graduation as to give 95 per cent any real hope of competing successfully to the end of the course.

STUDENT AMBITIONS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

(Note: 723 of 801, or 90.26 per cent response to the questionnaire.)

Unanswered	24
Unknown	14
College.	505
Training School	66
West Point	1
Law School.	3
Savage-Physical Education	6
Art School	8
Pratt Institute	4
Kindergarten Training	1
Music Conservatory	4
Dramatic School	1
Nurses' School	2
Elocution School	1
Navigation School.	1
"Take a course in domestic"	1
Business School	11
Night School.	2
Go on the Stage.	1
Work	57
Transferring to other schools	9
	<hr/>
	723
Nominating College	63 3%
Careers requiring high-school graduation	72 78%

A noted educator has recently said that about 130 I Q. is necessary at present to complete the bachelor of arts requirements in a college of good standard. If that is true, only 86 or 10.74 per cent of the group could reach this level. If we drop back to I Q. 120, on the assumption that at least high-school graduation and entrance to a second-rate college might be possible, 201 or 25.09 per cent could meet the standard.

In studying these nominations of ambitions for life, one is impressed with the fact that the ambitions of girls are very similar to those of boys. One of the girls, I Q. 118, wishes to become a marine architect.

One of the Italian students, I Q. 83, wishes to become a doctor. His reply to the question of why he came to this school is "Polite school teaching is good many athletes."

The above data are derived from answers to a questionnaire that happened at the time of its distribution to reach 143 students who had failed in at least two majors in the first term and who were, at the time of this investigation, in the status of left-backs. Their ambitions are about as soaring as those of new entrants.

			<i>Per cent</i>
College	80 of the total	143 or 55.94%	56
Law School, 1	} next equiv- alent to col- lege		
Training School, 16			
Savage-Physical Education 3			15
Art School, 1			
Naval Air Reserve, 1			
Business School, 9 or 6.28%			6
Employment			
Work, 22 or 15.38%	} 18 17%		
Join navy, 1 or .70%			18
Stage, 2 or 1.39%			
Learn lampshades, 1 or .70%			
Undecided, 6 or 4.13%			4

The most striking instance of "vaulting ambition that o'erleaps itself" is the choice of future occupations made by the members of this entering class. For purposes of comparison, these occupations were spread on the Barr scale, together with the ambitions of parents for these children, and the occupations of their own fathers. The questionnaire response on these items was at least 90 per cent in each case, and it is unlikely that more replies would change the significance of the results. Terman used this scale in his study of gifted children² and found the mean rating of occupations for fathers of the gifted to be 12.77 per cent. In the State of California, the mean for the male generality was 7.92 per cent; while we have no comparable study of the census available for New York State, it is unlikely that the mean for the general male population here would vary markedly from that for California.

²L. M. Terman, "Genetic Studies of Genius," vol. I, p. 66

The school study shows:

Mean of students' ambitions for themselves, 14.19 per cent, only a little below the level for the high-school teacher.

Mean of parents' ambitions for their children, 14.05 per cent, almost as high as the level set by the children themselves.

(182 parents' ambitions not expressed, because in most cases the ambitions of the children themselves are satisfactory.)

Mean of fathers' occupations, 10.26 per cent.

Mean of occupations selected by the left-backs, 13.71 per cent, corresponding to surveyor and above the mean for a grade-school teacher or a dentist

We may next inquire into the backgrounds that produced these students. The nationality backgrounds are as follows:

Nationality	Number	Per cent of the Whole
Jewish.	301	37.58
American .. .	235	29.34
Russian	74	9.24
German	53	6.62
Italian	40	4.99
Polish	18	2.25
English	15	1.87
Austrian	13	1.62
Hungarian	8	1.00
Swedish	8	1.00
Lithuanian	5	0.62
Norwegian.	5	0.62
Scotch.	5	0.62
Spanish	4	0.50
Syrian.	4	0.50
Irish	2	0.25
Danish	2	0.25
Roumanian	2	0.25
Swiss	2	0.25
Czechoslovakian . .	1	0.12
Cuban	1	0.12
West Indian . . .	1	0.12
Latvian	1	0.12
Armenian.	1	0.12
	801	99.97

The mean I. Q.'s and mean attainment for each of these nationality groups were computed but are not included here because the numbers are too few in any of the groups to give the data value. Besides, it has long ago been proved that no intellectual differences exist among different nationalities, however these differences seem to be present when selected groups are studied.

The nativity of parents and children has some significance for us.

		<i>Per cent</i>
Both parents born abroad	334	41.7
One parent born here and one abroad	116	14.48
Both parents born here	205	25.59
Birthplace of both parents unknown	128	18.23
Birthplace of one parent unknown	18	
		<hr/> 100.00
Children born here	660	82.39
Children born abroad	19	2.37
Birthplace of children unknown	122	15.24
		<hr/> 100.00

It is clear that a large proportion of the school population, 55 per cent at least, is comprised of first-generation immigrant stock.

Further information reveals that foreign languages are spoken in a high percentage of the homes.

		<i>Per cent</i>
Homes in which English only is spoken	319	39.82
Homes in which English and one other language are spoken	447	55.93
Homes in which no English is spoken	35	4.37
		<hr/> 100.12

English is in competition with a foreign language in 60.30 per cent of the homes.

Notwithstanding the fact that English is not the only language spoken in the majority of the homes, all ranges of I. Q. seem to be represented in the foreign language groups. This would indicate that the language handicap,

thought to exist in instances where the intelligence tests are taken in English, is less potent than is usually supposed.

<i>I. Q.'s</i>	<i>English only</i>	<i>English and one other</i>	<i>No English spoken</i>
75-79	0	4	0
80-84	4	11	2
85-89	9	25	0
90-94	16	27	1
95-99	32	56	5
100-104	46	57	7
105-109	40	55	6
110-114	42	57	4
115-119	44	45	2
120-124	25	36	1
125-129	22	32	2
130-134	22	23	2
135-139	5	8	2
140-144	5	6	0
145-149	2	1	0
150-154	3	4	1
Missing I. Q.'s	2	0	0
	<hr/> 319	<hr/> 447	<hr/> 35
Means	111.48	109.78	110.36
S. D.	13.77	14.8	5.04

Nevertheless, we are not warranted in believing that this foreign language factor has no effect upon school adjustment. When each student was asked to nominate his weakest subject in elementary school, the results gave prominence to language difficulties. Subjects found most difficult:

English	Arithmetic	226
Grammar.	188	
Literature	44	
Spelling	35	
Reading	5	
Poetry	1	
Composition	14	
Etymology	1	
	<hr/> 288	
	Social Science	
	History	69
	Geography	116
	Civics	3
		<hr/> 188
	Science	15
	Drawing	21
	Penmanship	22

Shop	6	Social Science	23.74
Cooking.	1	Drawing	2.65
Music	11	Penmanship	2.78
No subject.	14	Shop76
Omitted	9	Cooking.13
Response to questionnaire:		Science.	1.89
98.88%		Music	1.39
Summary:	Per cent	No subject.	1.77
English	36.36		
Arithmetic.	28.54		100.01

The data, taken collectively, are indicative of some of the changes that have taken place in this school and in the community in the last thirty years. For 109 years, the school was a private academy attended by a few children from wealthy, English-speaking families. The course of study was frankly college preparatory. In the memory of teachers still on the faculty, the school was out in the country reached by means of horse cars from Borough Hall; the buildings now face on two main thoroughfares in the heart of a business section. The spot map shows that this particular high school is largely a neighborhood school, and there is evidence that parents have deliberately settled in the neighborhood to have easy access to its location. In 1896, when the private school was donated to the City, there were eleven teachers on the staff, and about 250 students, all of them known to the principal by name. Four years ago, the faculty numbered 260 and the school population fluctuated in the neighborhood of 6,500—fifteen times as many teachers and twenty-six times as many students in a quarter of a century! The neighborhood population has changed from prosperous English and Dutch families, all English speaking, to a composite of twenty-four nationalities, with American, English-speaking families contributing much less than half of the school enrollment. Foreign language is now spoken in 60 per cent of the homes. Among the fathers of our students, salesmen and storekeepers far outnumber those of the professional classes, and the beautiful old private residences,

some still extant on side streets, have been replaced by shops of all kinds with apartments above for dwelling purposes. The high school, no longer selected by the few that are going on to college, receives all comers; that means under the operation of the present compulsory education law all elementary- and parochial-school graduates under the age of 17 who desire to attend the school. The range in I. Q., 70-157, is significant.

The high school has had to take measures to meet these conditions of changed intellectual caliber in the student body. For the first four terms or two years of the course all subjects except civics are given in "slow" form. The English department offers special courses without credit in composition and grammar, to aid in eliminating specific weaknesses in the subject. Still, notwithstanding the 60 per cent of foreign-language background, we are teaching Burke and Shakespeare and English pastoral poetry as if little alteration had occurred in the student personnel. There has been provided a special elective in physics given in the first term in "slow" form, leading on into science electives that make graduation possible but retarded from two to three terms. An elective in stenography and type-writing, available in the last two years of the course, allows students ultimately to secure a high-school diploma without taking language or mathematics. If students remain in high school longer than two years they must adapt to the courses given at regular rates of progress. By and large, however, the school is still offering the college-preparatory course. Students who are unable to struggle through at least part of the old accepted college preparation just drop out and the school system has not yet provided for their needs in specialized high schools offering different curricula. The inability of the reduced difficulty of the courses to ensure high-school success to a greater number of students would seem to show continued failure of the present course

to meet needs. Indeed, the curriculum may be said to have bent a little, but not too far, for fear of losing its dignity.

In all this mutation, the situation that has altered least is the future plans of students attending high school. This presents as pressing a problem as the modification of high-school curricula. The high-flying ambitions rest upon false assumptions made by the community and instilled into young persons. One such fallacy, for instance, is that mere attendance at high school ensures high-school graduation and college entrance. Another is that individual differences in mental equipment have no bearing upon the acquisition of a high-school or college graduation. Still another is that occupational status has no reference to the intellectual capacity requisite to perform in the life work selected. Still another is that an overwhelming proportion of the population can enter the professions if only they desire to do so. All of these are ways of saying that the public has, and clings to, an enormous blind spot for differences in intellect.

The refusal to face the facts results in tragic waste, economic and social. Students who cannot attain the lofty ambitions they have set for themselves have but two pathways to follow. They may try to arrive, discover they cannot, and withdraw. If they do so, their education is a sawed-off thing, not nearly so constructive as we might have made it working on real instead of fancied premises. On the other hand they may persist in their efforts and still fail; some of these high-school records resemble nothing so much as the siege of Verdun. No one ever knows, of course, what an I. Q. may do; some may defy all prediction. It is also conceded that a man's reach should exceed his grasp but—the grasp should not be forever out of sight. Nothing in mental hygiene encourages us to believe that continuous failure, never rewarded, is a wholesome thing, and we can only guess at the emotional maladaptation in the wake of these defeats. It stands to

reason that the majority of these students have to do considerable remaking of their life plans, and no agency in the family or in the community aids in that readaptation. So far as we know, it is a trial-and-error adjustment, a gradually insidious discovery that they cannot have the moon. The question is: Should we let them reach for this elusive moon without pointing out the folly of their attempts?

To try to give intelligent direction to the life careers of these young people would be to undermine American political philosophy. The politician, cuddling the public school in his arms, will always resist the disturbing psychology of individual differences because it spoils illusions. Acceptance of the facts would mean bursting of the cherished bubble about newsboys that become presidents. It would mean postulating certain uncomfortable questions about democracy. It would mean limiting the daydreaming of the masses. Yet it would seem that adults who have young people in their charge have some responsibility for preventing them from smashing themselves like flies against a windshield.

THE SOCIOLOGICAL AND EDUCATIONAL SIGNIFICANCE OF JEWISH SCHOOLS IN NEW YORK

AARON D. FLESHLER

In New York City there are many thousands of Jewish children who spend from one to two hours each afternoon in schools maintained voluntarily by groups of Jewish parents where Jewish history, the Jewish language, Jewish literature, the rudiments of religion, and kindred subjects are taught. A careful analysis of the curricula of these schools would show that they are not of the ordinary type of religious schools maintained by the various denominations, but that they are rather of a national-cultural type. Some of these institutions are ultraconservative; while others are extremely progressive, with various gradations in between; each school representing the social and cultural background of the respective group and expressive of the views of the particular group on such fundamental subjects as the destiny of the Jews, Jewish culture, Zionism, and other problems that are agitating the thinking Jew. But, however varied the outlook and programs of these schools, all of them have the three fundamental aims in view: (1) the struggle against the forces of assimilation that threaten the Jewish nationality with extinction; (2) the adjustment of the relation between the immigrant parent and the American child; and (3) the perpetuation of those elements of Jewish culture which the Jews alone are at present able and willing to perpetuate.

In so far as the Jewish schools fulfill these three fundamental aims, they are purely an affair of the Jews and would seem to contain no element of general interest. But inasmuch as they are a typical example of the efforts of the minority groups of this country to fight against the

so-called melting pot and to maintain their cultural identity, they are of a deep sociological significance in American life. The children are the future citizens of our country and any training they receive at present will affect their future citizenship. Sociologists should, therefore, be profoundly interested in the question whether the influence of such institutions is beneficial or hurtful to American democracy.

As educational institutions, the Jewish schools must challenge the attention of every serious educator who realizes that the educative effect of the influence the child comes under outside of the public school cannot be neglected. As said at the outset, some children spend as much as two hours each day in the Jewish schools and the question arises whether or not such practice is in harmony with a sound philosophy of education; whether it is useful and essential from an educational point of view, or whether it is, on the contrary, merely another burden added to the load of the child, to the violation of good educational doctrines.

Jewish education has, then, two aspects of general interest: (1) its effects on American democracy, and (2) its relation to general education. It is, therefore, distinctly a problem in educational sociology. In the following paper an attempt will be made to discuss this twofold aspect of Jewish education. It will be shown that Jewish education is in perfect harmony with the highest ideals of democracy and in full accord with the educational philosophy of the most advanced thinkers on the subject.

True, this function of the Jewish schools is not recognized by all Jews. In fact, those of the Jews who regard themselves as belonging to a religious group will most vehemently deny it. But, as Emerson said: "Men are wiser in their deeds than in their philosophy." Unknowingly, perhaps, to some of those maintaining these institutions, the Jewish schools are taking the place of religion

as a factor in perpetuating the continuity of the Jewish group.

But are not such institutions against our American ideals? Are they not dangerous to our democracy? Are they not disloyal to the institutions of our country? To answer these questions a brief analysis must be made of the relations of the principle of nationality to democracy.

THE PRINCIPLE OF NATIONALITY AND THE DEMOCRATIC IDEAL

In dealing with any question of American life, be it religious, political, educational, economic, or industrial, or any other phase of social life, our criterion by which to judge whether a particular method of procedure or a certain criticism is right or wrong must be the democratic ideal. We must ask ourselves: Is the present method democratic or not? Will the application of another method help or retard the growth of the democratic principle? But, of course, in taking democracy as a criterion, it must be taken in its widest implication. It is not the nominal democracy where a handful of politicians impose their will on an ignorant majority by the well-known methods of political chicanery; it is not the democracy where the vast majority is too ignorant to judge and comprehend the many complicated social, political, and industrial problems. I am referring to the democratic ideal as defined by the modern apostle of American democracy, John Dewey.¹

In its fullest and most comprehensive meaning, democracy implies "a mode of associative living." There must be "numerous and varied points of shared common interests, and there must be free interaction between social groups." Free interaction does not mean uniformity; it means full freedom for every social group as long as it does not interfere with the interests and hamper the

¹John Dewey, *Democracy and Education*, p. 100.

activities of any other social group. This definition implies democracy in politics, in social life, in industry, in religion, and in any other phase of social activity.

Of course, we have only begun to touch the field of industrial democracy; we are very remote from the ideal of social democracy; and, lacking these two, we can have only a semblance of political democracy. But the thought of cultural democracy, that is, the right of every national group to preserve, develop, and transmit its own cultural traditions as long as it does not interfere with the like endeavors of other groups and does not endanger the safety of the state as a whole, is hardly ever entertained even by the most ardently professed democrats. Yet, when we consider that "man does not live by bread alone"; that the material things form only the basis upon which is reared the great superstructure of human values; and that a man may be said to live a complete life only in proportion as he is able and free to partake of the higher phases of life; we must then realize that the cultural right of each group is one of the most important items in the characteristics of a democracy.

This principle of letting the minority groups in any country pursue their cultural development along their own path is especially applicable to our own country where there is really as yet no dominant *native* culture. What passes as Americanism is really the Anglo-Saxon culture which the earlier immigrants brought over with them and which is being forced upon the other immigrants who happened to arrive in this country at a later period. And this policy of one section of our immigrants, may they be the oldest and most numerous section, attempting to make all others assume their own physiognomy is working to the detriment of all concerned. For the culture of a people must be ingrained in it through a slow historical process, and it cannot be made to change overnight, as a man changes his clothes.

A masterful analysis of the situation in this country is made by Randolph S. Bourne¹ in an article entitled *Trans-national America*. Mr. Bourne finds that the "melting pot" does not really melt; "that the tendency, reprehensible and paradoxical as it might be, has been for the national cultures of immigrants, as they become more and more firmly established and more and more prosperous, to cultivate more and more assiduously the literature and cultural traditions of their home lands." This is true not only of the newer immigrants but of all who came to this country. It is true of the early colonists, who did not "come to be assimilated or adopt the culture of Indians." He, therefore, concludes that "America shall be what the immigrants will have a hand in making it, and not what a ruling class, descendant of those British stocks which were the first permanent immigrants, decide what America shall be made."

Mr. Bourne further points out that as a matter of justice each nationality must be permitted to assure its continuity, otherwise they are denied the freedom guaranteed by a democracy; for "if freedom means democratic co-operation in determining the ideals and purposes, and industrial and social institutions of a country, then the immigrant has not been free."

If it be argued that Anglo-Saxonism is, after all, superior to the civilization brought over by the later immigrants, and that, therefore, it is for the benefit of the entire country that Anglo-Saxonism should dominate, Mr. Bourne points to the South, where the native civilization has remained more Anglo-Saxon than in any other locality, and says: "Let the Anglo-Saxon ask himself how superior this native (Southern) civilization is to the great alien States, Wisconsin and Minnesota, where Scandinavians, Poles, and Germans have self-consciously labored to preserve their traditional culture, while being outwardly and satis-

¹*Atlantic Monthly*, July, 1916

factorily American." As a matter of fact, those foreigners who have thrown away their native cultures have acquired only the superficial polish of Americanism of the cheap newspaper. He concludes that there will be a distinct gain to America, spiritually and intellectually, to become transnational in its cultural aspect.

The same conclusion is reached by John Dewey⁴ in an article entitled "The Principle of Nationality." After enumerating the traits of nationality, among which are community of language, common literature, unity and continuity of traditions, common memories, etc., he shows by numerous examples that attachment to a particular territory is not one of the traits of nationality. He then says that "one principle seems to be clear; namely, that if there is to be lasting peace there must be a recognition of rights and privileges, its rights to its own language, its own literature, its own ideals, its moral and spiritual outlook on the world, its religious freedom, and such political autonomy as may be consistent with maintenance of the general social order." Consistent with his definition of democracy he urges that "cultural give and take should be recognized" and "the United States is so interesting because there is so much local diversity."

The efforts of the Jews in this connection is of special interest to those who desire to see this local diversity continue; who wish our country to be not a melting pot with dead uniformity where the spirituality of the individual is not enriched by the inheritance of past achievements; but, instead, they would have our country to be a place where every culture, unhampered by political limitations and old world prejudices, should blossom forth with greater splendor and contribute its share towards making this country a shining example of many religions and cultures thriving side by side for the general good of society. For the Jews are the best and most conspicuous example that a

⁴*Menorah Journal*, October, 1917

nationality is not necessarily a political unit, but a historico-cultural group, bound by a common history, language, literature, etc. The Jews have succeeded in preserving their identity amidst every nation and political group, yet when they were given equal political rights and allowed to participate freely on equal terms with all other nationalities in the political, social, economic, and industrial life of the nation, there was no element more loyal to the general interests of society. We see this clearly in our country and particularly in the City of New York, where the Jews have succeeded in preserving their nationality, and at the same time have been inferior to none in making New York a city the entire nation can be proud of.

Furthermore, it is well known that those of the Jewish youth who have received a thorough Jewish training are spiritually, culturally, and I dare say, morally, far above the youth of *the same social class* who know nothing of Jewish learning. These youths are, therefore, a positive asset to the community and a distinct gain to our democracy; for, "any process which enriches his personality, widening his interests, and deepening his emotions is helpful to democracy."

An application of the democratic criterion shown, then, that the schools maintained by the Jews are not only justifiable, but are absolutely essential for the working out of democratic principles. The second point to be examined is the relation of Jewish education to general education, and this will be done in the following section.

RELATION TO GENERAL EDUCATION

So far I have discussed the question of the importance of the Jewish schools from the point of view of democracy. But schools are, after all, educational institutions, and no problem affecting the education of an individual or a group

can be discussed without discussing its relation to the process of education as a whole.

Now, the great contribution of modern educational theory is that it has placed the *child* in the center of the educational process. It is no longer an adult ideal which has to be grafted on the blank mind of the children, but the needs and nature of the child that determine the educational process: Education is growth, and all the school can do is to create such an environment—the influence of the teacher forming part of the environment—as will be conducive to best growth.

That the school may properly fill this function it must be a continuation of the child's environment. It must help the child to understand this environment, emphasize its good factors, and, as much as possible, minimize the effect of the objectionable features. *The public school does not serve this purpose with respect to the majority of the Jewish children.* School and home environment are two distinct things in the life of the Jewish child, and a kind of dual personality results. At home a certain language is spoken; school does not utilize the child's mother tongue. No attempt is made by the public school to explain the significance and importance of the holidays celebrated in the Jewish home, although these holidays play an important part in the spiritual life of the child. At home there are certain traditions and in general the home atmosphere is pervaded by the invisible factors of an inherited culture; school totally neglects all these factors. It would be comical, if it were not so tragic, to hear Jewish youngsters discuss among themselves the difficulties they have in adjusting the stories they hear at school with certain things they see at home. Groping in their childish way for the truth, they get no help from the adults. It is then vital to have the Jewish schools take care of those phases of the mental and spiritual growth of the Jewish child which the public school neglects.

Coming now from the general environmental factors to specific school subjects we again see the need of a school to fill the educational gap left by the public school. Let us take the subject of history. Why are children taught this subject? In modern education history is no longer a matter of dates and facts. History, educators tell us, forms a part of the individual's environment, taking the term environment to mean all those factors which are influencing and have influenced man and society. History is then taught for the purpose of explaining to the individual the *WHY* of present-day institutions and his own relation to them. If this is history *then the Jewish child is not taught history in the public schools*. History to become functional in the life of the modern Jew must explain to him *ALL* factors which have had an effect on Jewish life; it must help him understand the problems of the Jewish present, which are—whether one desires it or not—thrown upon the consciousness of every Jewish man and woman. Patriotic as it may be, it is nevertheless absurd when a Jewish youngster is explained his position in present-day society by starting out with the landing of the Pilgrims and not a word is said to him about the long and tragic history of *his ancestors*, and nothing is told him about the numerous wanderings of *his people* before they came to this country.

However, the subject of history has another aspect. In history, the individual can learn about the struggles of the race as it emerged from savagery and slowly worked its way up to the present state; in history man learns about the ideals which have actuated his ancestors; and finally in history, the youth sees an example of great characters fighting for an ideal, and he may perhaps be inspired with the ideal to emulate them. Now, I venture to say that among the nations of the world there is not one *whose history is so full of idealism as is the history of the Jews*. In fact, the entire Jewish history is the exemplification

of the triumph of the ideal, the spiritual over the physical and material. In Jewish history we see also the greatest array of characters who withstood the persecution of ages and at times laid down their lives for the sake of an ideal. To mention only a few illustrations: Among the Jewish national heroes are found the Prophets, men who dared see visions and dream dreams about human existence that are remote from the best of us even in our present enlightened age; Jewish history gave birth to the most important religions of mankind; in Jewish history we see the wonderful spectacle of a handful of Jews opposing, and almost defeating the *Roman Legions*—not for the glory of the combat, but for a principle—for the right to their own religion at a time when to most men changing their religion was less of a hardship than changing their clothes. Finally, the student of Jewish history sees how a small nationality, scattered among all the nations on earth, has succeeded in maintaining its identity in the face of the most terrible persecutions and in the face of the fires of the inquisition where thousands upon thousands of Jews *died for an ideal*.

Such is the power of an ideal and if history can at all furnish us with inspiration and with the desire for emulations, it is Jewish history that can do it best. I sincerely hope that the time will come when Jewish history will be taught in all the schools of the world. But the Jewish youths are certainly fittest to draw inspiration from the history of their own people; for when they come to know that in their veins courses the blood of those fighters for idealism, that it was their ancestors who gave the world the most notable example of the victory of the spiritual over the physical, they will have a powerful urge to fight against the gross materialism of the age and for a more ideal world.

What is true about history is also true about literature. In Jewish literature (ancient, mediæval, and modern) is

reflected the essential idealism of Jewish history. If literature is to become a real force and source of inspiration in the life of the Jewish children, there is no reason on earth why the literature which is nearest to them, because it is their natural inheritance, because their ancestors have created it, should not have, at least, the same influence in their lives as the literatures produced by other people.

We see, therefore, that the education of the Jewish child to be complete must be continuous with his environment, it must include in its curriculum such subjects as are more in harmony with his part or his national inheritance. The public school *does not and cannot* furnish this education. The schools maintained by the Jews themselves most fill this deficiency.

CONCLUSION

In thus stating the aim of Jewish education, its relation to democracy and to general education, I by no means claim it to be consciously purposed by all who are active in the field of Jewish education. In fact some would strenuously object to having the Jews classified as a nationality or their schools other than religious. I do claim, however, that whether consciously or unconsciously, these schools are the crystallization of the desire of the Jews to continue as a distinct cultural group; and the tendency is that with their further development they will turn from being the result of the blind groping of the Jewish people with the conscious and avowed expression of their will to exist. This is bound to come; for sooner or later every intelligent Jew will recognize that religion is no longer a force strong enough to keep the people intact. The new bonds of unity will be the bonds of a common culture, and the schools will be the only means of perpetuating and developing this culture.

Needless to say, the Jewish schools are by no means perfect, they do not fully answer the purpose which is

claimed for them in this paper. There are many objectionable features to be eliminated and many problems to be solved. But to enumerate these problems and suggest their solution is beyond the scope of this paper. Then, again, many suggestions could be made as to what educators as a whole can do to help the Jews solve their problems. They can, for example, influence the city high schools to introduce Jewish history and literature among their electives. They can influence the great body of Jewish students in the colleges and schools of education to enter the special field of Jewish education; and many other things can be done by sympathetic educators. But this discussion, too, does not properly belong here.

In this paper an attempt was merely made to state the theoretical foundation for Jewish education in the light of a *personal philosophy* of education, but a philosophy which is supported by the views of a good many Jews and also non-Jews, and which is, I hope, in accord with the best traditions of the democratic ideal.

BAD BOYS AND THE LIBRARY HOUR

OLIVE M. JONES

An experiment initiated in 1907 and still in process in two buildings of Public School 120 and Annexes, New York City, a special day school for preventive work among truant, delinquent, and disorderly boys, has encountered many difficulties in its history. The actual carrying out of the project is now being done under the direction of two teachers in each of two buildings, Public School 120 on the Lower East Side and Public School 37, whose boys come from the Yorkville and East Harlem districts of Manhattan and from the Bronx. The experiment involves the effective use of the library hour. The library hour has three major aims.

First, occupation for leisure. Many boys get into bad company and become delinquent because their only use of leisure time is to play on the streets, to attend the poolrooms and dance halls, and finally to join with the gang. This experiment was undertaken with the assumption that many boys can be taught to love to read and through the companionship of books acquire a distaste for the harmful influence of the street loafer and gang leader.

Second, the improvement of the type of reading boys select. Experience in these schools indicates that delinquent boys who read at all select the tabloids, picture newspapers, and stories of the lurid, often indecent sort, obtained surreptitiously in the back-room gathering places, behind small cigar shops, and in the haunts of the neighborhood gangs, such as car barns, gas-house yards, storage lots, and docks.

Moreover, preaching and teaching against such reading habits are useless. Commands and confiscation have only a temporary result and often create a dogged determination to persist. Control of the newspaper reading to a cer-

tain extent is possible but the books, with their appeal to base imaginings, their sight-destroying print, and their evil associations, escape control because they are secreted in the boys' pockets.

Furthermore, no plan had succeeded by which the literature and reading lessons could be used to any appreciable degree as a means of inducing the boys to abandon their undesirable reading matter, even when skillfully and sympathetically presented by able teachers. The taint of study adhered! Delinquent boys lose caste with their gang when they study and when they carry despised school books around! Therefore some new way totally separated from the classroom exercises had to be employed.

Third, the provision of supplementary information. The instruction in several subjects is necessarily curtailed in order to provide time for additional manual, industrial, and vocational training. The purpose, therefore, is to secure for the boys some of the material thus omitted by leading them to read it voluntarily during the library hour.

These were the three major aims with which the experiment began. All of these aims have to a certain extent become subordinate to that of training in social action and in character which has developed out of the measures which became essential in order to establish the library successfully. The final establishment of the library hour grew out of an administrative need.

The boys do not leave the building at noon, but eat a cafeteria lunch in the playroom. The teachers are, however, given a free period for lunch. This situation required oversight of the boys while teachers were out, and led to the doubling up of classes while teachers took turns in going out at noon. This in its turn led to the discussion of activities of possible use by teachers in charge. Reading was the easiest immediate answer, and the opportunity to try out my plan of a library hour had arrived.

The first two attempts to establish the library hour were failures. There is no need to discuss the cause of the failures now, for it is not important to the present story. The failure lies in the attitude of many teachers and of the average public towards delinquent boys and in the false notion that they are mentally defective. Having fought that notion and that attitude for twenty years in relation to every step undertaken, the failures merely made me eliminate the teachers concerned, assign them to other work, and try other teachers.

The third attempt was partially successful, the weaknesses resulting chiefly from inadequate equipment. The fourth attempt is now under way and is being enthusiastically worked out by teachers, two of whom are ingenious in devices. The rest of this story will relate only to the work in the 87th Street building, with two able teachers in charge.

Every class in the school has each week at least one hour in "Library." Classes of the sixth, seventh, and eighth years have ninety minutes or two full periods. About seventy-five boys go to the reading room at one time. The fourth-floor assembly room is used. The furniture consists of the old type of fixed desk. By collecting all the book-cases and closets which could possibly be spared from offices or classrooms, a fairly adequate provision has been made for the care of books. The work of removal and placement of all of these closets was done by the boys themselves under the supervision of shop teachers. With the same loyal boys, aided by the teachers' cars, one or two taxicabs, and some kind friends, we managed to acquire about two hundred books for the 87th Street building and something less than one hundred for the Broome Street building. These were sorted, cleaned, repaired, graded, and put on the shelves for use.

At the same time a campaign for a School Library Fund was started. Boys and teachers and friends of the school

contributed. The Library Department of the Board of Education allotted \$50.00 and occasionally grants a few odd books. The supply, however, is far below our needs.

The room is bright and cheerful. When properly equipped, it will be well suited to its purpose. But at present it must also be used for music assemblies and for visual education. In order to supply the needful atmosphere and counteract disturbing influences, framed posters were provided for appropriate spaces. The frames were made in the carpenter shops of the school. The posters are beautifully drawn and carry legends appropriate to a library or designed to incite a desire to read. The boys are free to walk around and examine the posters. Occasionally one is read aloud and made the theme of a general exercise in oral English, in composition, or debate, although neither boys nor teachers treat the exercise as a formal lesson. Both teachers in charge fit into the picture. They dress prettily and tastefully, are courteous to the boys, have remarkable insight into boys' character, and treat the boys like *chosen companions, with none of the remote dignity of the traditional teacher*. However, every boy knows it is not safe to break library rules, tamper with books, and they know that every bit of wrongdoing will be followed with appropriate punishment. Furthermore, the teachers have a feeling for books, are readers themselves, are dramatic in manner and in their presentation of a book they want the boys to read, and finally they have a keen sense of humor. In a word they are well equipped for the particular kind of work assigned to them.

The first rule of a library—*Silence and Quiet*—is strictly enforced, after the necessity for quiet is carefully explained. Emulation of a "real" library is incited. Public opinion and boy aid are enlisted to secure quiet that others may read. The teachers practise quiet themselves, speak in hushed tones, and they refuse to permit interruptions. The principal aids by sending no messengers to the library

except in an extreme emergency. Directions to boy librarians are given softly, and boys are trained to move quietly. Even in little routine movements the effect of quiet is sought. Boys enter, walking on their toes and they leave quietly—adolescents roughly shod, noisy boys of New York tenements!

The second rule, responsibility for the book borrowed from the library, is enforced with equal strictness but with greater difficulty. In our earlier attempts our loss of books was considerable, even serious. Boys stole books. When finished with a book they did not trouble to return it but left it wherever they happened to be. Once I was actually compelled to collect the library books and lock them away, and substitute arithmetic and spelling for exercises in the unused library hour. There is still some loss and some attempts at theft are made, but with little success. This is due to the unvarying system of checking. A boy selects a book with the aid of a boy librarian. One of the two teachers writes his name and the date of the book and retains a record for her own use. No boy is permitted to remain even one period without a book, idle lounging is not tolerated. If a book disappears, its last borrower is held accountable. If a boy has no book, he must account for the one recorded against his name. If the book is not returned, payment is required either in cash at the list price or by the replacement of the book purchased where the boy chooses. A letter is sent to the parents notifying them of this practice. If payment is not made in a reasonable length of time, other measures are taken. When there is long delay or neglect, the parents are usually the ones to blame, not always because of poverty but because of attitude. But the story of the consequences of loss of a library book spread rapidly through the school and the deterrent effects have been markedly shown in the improved condition of our books.

The third rule, that every boy must read while in the library hour serves several purposes. It helps in the realization of our own aims outlined at the beginning of this article. It breaks up the habit of idle lounging which the delinquent boy will indulge in whenever he dares. It gives the teachers a sidelight on a boy's aptitudes and tendencies. A boy may have any book to read which he chooses for himself just as he would in a public library. Boy librarians are in charge of each case. Under the watchful eyes of the boy attendants, a boy may take the books off the shelves, look them over, dip into one or two a bit, and otherwise behave in a perfectly normal library manner. Frequently he questions the boy librarian about a book. Frequently other boys have told him the name of a book to get if he can, and he watches for his chance to get it. It is an inspiration when discouraged by hindrances and obstructions to watch the music assemblies and the boys in the library hour. The City calls these boys "bad," and they are genuine problem cases.

The fourth rule is that a book once selected must be read and no change can be made unless the boy states to the teacher a really satisfactory reason for not reading the book taken. "I don't like it" is not accepted. "Why?" is immediately demanded. There is no need to take time to explain the opportunity for help afforded the teacher in thus conversing with a boy. Frequently the boy goes back with a new interest in his book. Sometimes the teacher accedes to his request for change as being justified by the boy's statements.

The fifth rule is that a boy must prove that he has really read the book he selected. The carrying out of this rule is really the backbone of our whole scheme. It is the point on which the earlier attempts all broke down and precipitated failure. It is the evidence of the successful achievement of the aims we set out to accomplish. Its successful enforcement entailed a long and interesting effort.

When the library hour was begun and the boys were as a group still unwilling to read the books we had selected as good reading matter for them, our discipline difficulties were tremendous. Finally I said to the boys something to this effect: "Boys, this is a period for you to read stories or poems or books of information as you choose. If you don't like the books provided, bring your own books and magazines and let me see what you do like." Yellow journals and dime-novel literature appeared—at first only a few boys being bold enough, but in a few days almost all of them. I said nothing, but let them read whatever they brought, since the important thing was to make them read anything at all.

Several boys brought murder stories or lurid yarns of Nick Carter type. Commenting on these books, we mentioned mystery and adventure stories of a better sort. We read portions aloud, being careful to stop at the most interesting passage. We lent these books to individual boys, picking leaders and boys likely to prove most recalcitrant. Later we let them tell to the group the end of the selection we had read. When returned, these books were placed conspicuously in our own book cases. Gradually we added other stories in a similar manner, *Treasure Island*, *Huckleberry Finn*, Oliver Optic's stories, until finally the other books disappeared completely, and today we have no need of special inducement and our boys are not only reading the best of boy literature but informational reading also.

One of the most difficult things to overcome is the habit of turning the pages over, looking for pictures, reading the conversational parts of the story, and then discarding the book. In order to inculcate continuous reading, the following plan is followed: When a boy wants to change his book and get a new one, he steps up quietly to one of the teachers and says he is ready. In a low voice, so as not to disturb the other readers, he makes a report about the book finished. He must be able to answer such questions

as: What is the name of your present book? What is the author's name? Where is the title page? Tell me the names of some of the people in the books? Describe one of these persons. What are some of the chapters called? What is the saddest incident? the funniest? How did the story end? Would you recommend the book? Why?

Occasionally, the group is called to attention and a boy makes his report for the whole group to hear. It may be that his quietly spoken report was unusually clear and a good example for others to imitate. It may be that the book is one that the teacher wants boys to read, and this report provides a recommendation from one of their own kind. Moreover, once in every library hour the teacher halts the whole group for a brief rest, windows open, and physical drills. A volunteer is asked for, some one to come forward and tell the others what he has just been reading. The influence of this exercise cannot be overemphasized, especially for delinquent boys, who are almost invariably both unsocial and antisocial. It requires courage to come forward and face the crowd. The boy tells what he has read. This requires the assembling of material, the choice of words, and the expression of opinion. He meets the judgment of his peers, in the interest or lack of interest they manifest, in their laughing with him or at him, and in their agreement or disagreement with his opinion.

Innumerable funny stories have come out of this part of the library hour. One day recently a boy stood before the group and solemnly told the story of Nathan Hale as his reading matter during the period just finished, the book in his hand being a collection of Greek myths, which had accidentally found its way into the book case and did not belong to the library at all. There have been many cases of boys' telling stories not in the book supposedly read during the period. Sometimes they are testing the teacher. Sometimes it is a scheme to get a book changed without making the required report

Before the end of each term, every boy is required to write a report of a book read during library hour. It is not called a composition and a real reason is assigned for the report. On an analysis of the book reports is based the selection of new books and the changes in operation and methods found to be desirable for the next term, as well as an estimate of success in the aims set forth for the library hour.

One feature of the library which we have been unable to try out so far is the extension of the work from our own reading room to the public libraries. This feature is an important factor in developing a love of reading as providing a worthy occupation for leisure. It has not been forgotten, but circumstances and conditions we could not control have compelled us to confine our work to our own building. We believe, however, that the establishment of a connection with the public libraries is an essential part of our plan of operation.

The delinquent boy easily acquires wrong habits and occupations for his leisure time, and these eventually lead him into the gang and either criminal life or worthless idleness. Furthermore, an unsocial attitude is one of the characteristics of the delinquent boy. He is selfish, highly individualistic, and singularly deficient in a feeling of social responsibility. Even his membership in a gang is not really founded upon group loyalty or team work, but rather upon fear and self-interest. Frequently these conditions are due to or increased by reading bad books or by the failure to read at all. Introducing the boys to good books and inciting a love for reading may become a means of saving them from the evil consequences of a wrongly occupied leisure. The improvement in their reading habits may be secured by methods which have as a by-product a development of higher ideals of social conduct, of consideration for others,

and of the obligations and opportunities which life in the group affords. It seems to me that the idea of training delinquent boys in the library habit, according to the methods we are pursuing, comes pretty close to certain social objectives of education, especially vocational efficiency, ethical efficiency, and command of the means of social communication.

SECRET CONTROL

By H. G. DUNCAN

Sociologists have long been familiar with the concept of social control. Yet they continue to use the term with many shades of meaning and without according it very definite or universal limitations. The term control is derived from two Latin words: *contra-rotulus* (roll against.) Literally, this would imply that a person is controlled who has his course of action impeded, deflected, or forwarded by some agent or stimulus. Although keeping this derivative meaning in mind, our sociologists have used social control with a much greater latitude. We may say they use it with four chief meanings:

To Bernard, control "is any stimulus or complex of stimuli which calls forth a response. Thus all stimuli are controls."¹ Due to the complexity of modern life and the obscurity of the psychic processes of persons, social control becomes lost in its own vastness. Bernard, however, has endeavored to reduce this concept to comprehensibility by thinking of control as institutional and noninstitutional.

Social control to Allport is not to be "regarded as a purely external phenomenon, as if the controlling pressure were applied physically to individuals" but as the "conditioning of primitive responses and of inhibitions."² Such a conditioning of responses is obtained through organized and unorganized controls.

Thomas considers control not so much from the viewpoint of stimuli, or of psychological processes within the person, as from the end in view. It is, he says, "the object realized or unrealized of all purposive activity."³

Another phase is stressed by Lumley,⁴ namely, control as method, which he treats under the physical-force method,

¹ *An Introduction to Social Psychology*, p. 541.

² *Social Psychology*, pp. 391-2.

³ *Source Book for Social Origins*, p. 14

⁴ *Means of Social Control*, p. 14

and the human-symbol method. In the latter he deals with praise, rewards,, flattery, persecution, and the like.

From the above and other uses of social control, it becomes obvious that a large and very important group of social phenomena has been neglected. This division the author proposes to consider as secret control, and add it as a third part to the institutional and noninstitutional types of social control. This type cannot be explained wholly in terms of purposes, psychological processes, stimuli, or by methods. Secret control is an attitude originating in some unsuccessfully met experience or series of experiences usually occurring during adolescence or early childhood. With the reoccurrence of apparently similar situations, the person becomes more and more maladjusted. Each successive maladjustment gains in emotional momentum; a behavior pattern develops, which is oftentimes characterized by personal eccentricities; and as a consequence social relationships are thereby affected. A person, if he be somewhat introspective or seclusive, may brood over the results of his unsatisfactory adjustments until he is happier when alone, and in some instances continue this brooding until his mental processes become so disorganized that a type of insanity results. On the other hand, it is possible that a secret control may operate in causing the subject to seek wider and deeper social relationships, and in spurring him on to greater accomplishments. It cannot be assumed, however, that all secret controls can be grouped under these extremes. While some appear neither to be aware of the influence of a secret control nor to give evidence of the existence of such in their overt behavior, others, in whom hidden controls once functioned, now seem to be coping with them successfully. In fact a case of hopeless deformity, once depressing and psychically restrictive, may become a sort of compensatory force responsible for noble accomplishments.

It is only when these controls have emerged into inferiority or superiority complexes that the psychiatrist becomes interested. While the sociologist is concerned with these special interests of the psychologist and psychiatrist, he is primarily interested in how such maladjustments affect a person's ecology—the process of how the person unites with others in the formation, maintenance, and severance of group relationship.⁵ It is, then, only in the understanding of psychic interactions manifested in overt behavior that he becomes interested in these special fields.

During the past three years, the author has been endeavoring to isolate and study experience factors which have operated as secret controls in determining behavior. The data, consisting of over three hundred cases, was collected from undergraduate, graduate, and extension students. It is not the purpose of this article to suggest means or devices for retraining, although a number of subjects through constructive advice have succeeded in lessening the force of their secret controls and several of the author's former students are successfully using this concept in aiding their students in grade and high schools to make social adjustments, or to report minutely the results of the investigation; but rather to set forth a tentative hypothesis of secret control based upon actual data.

It is not within the province of sociology proper specifically to determine the exact factor responsible for the initiation of a secret control, to disentangle the elements of the psychological process involved, or to recommend therapeutic treatment. Yet it is necessary in studying the effects of secret controls upon human interactions to treat what seems to be their general origin. Some have been able to analyze the sources of their secret controls, others apparently rationalize, while a few as yet have no idea as to their origin. A mature lady is quite unable to explain her reac-

⁵For a fuller discussion of this concept, see H. G. Duncan, "The Concept of Personal Ecology," *Social Forces*, March, 1928, pp. 426-429.

tions to a dead chick, of which she has been afraid since her earliest remembrance.

Although each control is in actuality unique for that particular person, general types may be distinguished. For our present purpose we may say that in general the majority of secret controls are of two types: (1) those initiated through psychic reactions to some actual or imagined physical defect; and (2) those having their genus in some highly emotionalized experience, either actually experienced by the person or transferred through contact with others.

Minor and even some serious physical deformities do not necessarily limit a person's ecology beyond restricting his participation in strenuous physical exertions. It is the person's own reaction to his handicap, the reaction of others towards it, and his reaction to their reaction that circumscribe for him isolating barriers. For we as members of a group are so sensitive to the opinions of others that we strive to regulate our behavior so that it will meet the approbation of our group.

The most common source of the first-named type of secret controls are physical deformities, out-of-proportionateness, inferior muscular coordinations, and deviations from the accepted group standard for physique. These the persons begin to magnify when they realize or imagine their conspicuousness.

Case 18. "Miss X's two upper front teeth came through crooked, much to the distress of her family." To this condition the family reacted with genuine family solicitude by cautioning her "to be careful not to open her mouth very wide in laughing and singing." At nearly every meal "they talked about her teeth, saying that it was surely too bad that her looks should be thus spoiled." Although her teeth are now straight, Miss X, at present a very successful teacher, developed an early behavior pattern, in which very noticeable facial expressions predominated, and in which there was a tendency to shun situations where her teeth

would be noticed. While the muscles around the mouth have been retrained, and her habitual mode of regarding herself altered, there is always self-consciousness when by chance any one glances at her mouth, and the extreme likelihood of resuming the early contortions of the mouth when under undue stress or extreme fatigue.

Case 6. Mrs. F. was the youngest of six children, and the only one of the girls who had large feet. "My two sisters," says she, "constantly made fun of my feet, not suspecting how it was affecting me. From a desire not to show my feelings, I joined in with them. But the thought of my feet became a horror to me. I would walk blocks rather than take a street car where people would notice my feet. It was at this time I formed the habit of always trying to sit behind a table or some place where I could hide my feet, or by sitting on my feet Turk-wise—habits which I still notice in myself.

"Now that I am old enough to have little of vanity left, it amuses me to find that any compliment about my feet pleases me tremendously. When a shoe clerk tells me that my feet are so narrow and my arch so high he cannot fit me except in a very expensive shoe, it pleases me as no other compliment could ever do."

The passage of years and the psychic adjustments have partially eliminated the subject's sensitivity to her large feet, yet the associated experiences have left her open, even eager to be stimulated by a certain class of stimuli—compliments regarding her feet. She, however, is still so sensitive that she can scarcely continue a conversation when one glances at her feet

Case 161. It is a different situation to face when the person is so seriously affected that the only cure is to learn to live with his deformity. And this is still more difficult when his very name has degenerated into a nickname which in its very appropriateness emphasizes the deformity.

" ' Hoppie ' used to grow disagreeably angry when teased by his high-school mates about his right leg, which was deformed. He avoided the company of other boys for fear he would be called by his nickname. He would not go bathing or undress in the presence of other boys. He did not like people to see his crippled leg, and I don't think any one at school ever saw it.

"He came to school about seven o'clock every morning to avoid walking with other people.

"Once when I was sitting next to him at a ball game my arm accidentally rested upon his leg. His face turned red and he immediately moved his leg and crossed it over his other."

Case 91. "During father's first singing lesson, practically the first time he had ever tried to sing, the teacher pointed him out in class and said: 'Look here, you've got a terrible voice. What made you think you could sing? Please hush as you put the whole class out of tune.'

"From that day he has never sung. Every time he feels happy he whistles instead. Now when a group of friends come in for the evening to sing, father stands up with the rest of them to sing but never attempts to sing; he merely reads the words of the song to enjoy it with the rest. There is nothing about which he is so sensitive as his singing."

Case 295. The author became interested in a young man in his class who occupied a rear seat and persistently refrained from taking part in any discussion. An investigation revealed the fact that on entering the university three years before, desirous of making a good record, he had followed the advice of an upperclassman—"sit in the front row and answer every time you get an opportunity." This he did until one day one of his professors gruffly told him to keep quiet, that he would call on him when he wanted him to answer. This so crushed the young man that from that day on he occupied a rear seat and never spoke unless

pressed. Despite our very friendly and democratic relationship, all efforts to draw him into class discussions were futile. His written work was excellent and he wished to enter into the discussions, but he was unable to forget this unhappy experience and bring himself to the point of participating in class discussions.

These two last cases are representative of those experiences that have never been adequately met. Although the former has developed whistling as a compensation, he continues to place himself in secretly desired situations which conceal his extreme sensitivity. The latter has developed a shut-in type of personality and an unwholesome attitude towards university life.

A person's life may not only be colored by the working of a secret control resulting from his own experience, but the emotionalized elements of experiences may be transferred from person to person through suggestion and constant colorful repetition. The small child thus becomes subject to overwhelming fears of his parents, grandparents, nervous old maid aunts, and ignorant Negro nurses.

Case 168. An investigation of the cause of a small child's terror-stricken behavior during storms revealed the fact that during electric storms the nurse, an ignorant religious fanatic, would moan and wail over the possibility of the world's coming to an end. While experiences are in themselves not transferable, a person whose own experience or series of experiences are governed by some such emotions as fear or rage may succeed in attaching the same emotional reaction to experiences of his associates.

This study has revealed secret terrorizing fears of Indians, Gypsies, Mexicans, Negroes, snakes, dogs, cats, mice, spiders, dead chicks, feathers; and of earthquakes, and other natural phenomena, all of which have never in themselves functioned unpleasantly in an initiatory experience.

We are naturally interested in what effect these secret controls have on socialization—the entering, maintenance, and severance of a person's group relationships. Secret controls affect socialization by isolating their subjects from some groups and restricting their associations in others, thereby limiting their altitudinal fluidities.

The little kindergarten boy cries because he is placed beside a Mexican child, the representative of a race, one of whose members killed the boy's father. The tall girl, aware of her height, "before accepting 'dates' with boys always wants to know how tall they are; accordingly she has been known to refuse them if she learns that they are somewhat short." If the secret controls lying at the root of aversions and affinities were uncovered and disentangled, many negative and positive reactions which cause much neighborly and gossipy speculation would be explained. As in one instance a very obese wife known in her girlhood days as "Fatty," and a very slender husband, known in his boyhood days as "Skinny," genuinely admire each other's personal appearance. Group attachments are, therefore, partially determined by the individual controls in operation.

Secret controls are also somewhat determinative of the groups which one isolates. The young lady teacher whose toe is deformed as a result of a childhood accident, is extremely fond of water, but never goes swimming unless she can dress in private and wear shoes while swimming, for fear some one may see the "parrot-bill toe." Or the man whose brother was drowned, foregoes "many outing trips because I do not care to join others in boating or swimming, because the sight of water, especially if muddy or swift flowing, has been most terrifying to me. Even when crossing San Francisco Bay on a ferry boat I can never bear to remain on deck but sit in a stuffy cabin rather than look across its muddy waters."

The older boy, handicapped by lameness and sensitive to the taunts of boys his own age, selects as companions boys much younger and goes "to an unfrequented spot on the school ground and catches ball." In this way he can retain his self equality or even superiority in group relationships.

Ofttimes the more beautiful of two sisters receives the more handsome clothing and more training in social graces; while the less beautiful one takes it for granted that her relation to her sister is one of subordination. In this sisterly adjustment each reacts to the other in the rôle of superordination and subordination. As the superordinated sister continues to receive greater solicitude and interest from the family, and as she becomes accustomed to receiving special favors and to annex the most promising friends, the equilibrium of reciprocal relationships between her and her sister is destroyed. Each, in meeting the situations that arise, react more and more to the part she believes assigned her.

One's position in a group is often decidedly shifted through some secret control that has crept in. "One day while our history teacher was explaining a map, some boy in the rear exclaimed: 'I can't see for Tom's head is in my way.' This remark brought a roar of laughter from the class, and for the first time we noticed that Tom did have a very large head. After this it was not uncommon to hear Tom referred to as 'big-headed Tom.' Soon it was noticed that Tom occupied the rear seat and not the front one as before.

"Prior to this circumstance he was active in school athletics and had a high scholarly standing. Afterwards he dropped his activities one by one and showed signs of relief when alone.

In brief, secret controls account for many unwarranted prejudices, morbid fears, unfortunate self-ratings, and

sometimes insanity. They partially determine one's lateral and altitudinal mobility and fluidity by becoming a selective factor in the choice of companionships and group memberships, and by shifting or otherwise conditioning the depth of these group interactions.

EDUCATION IN SOVIET ARMENIA

GEORGE M. WILCOX

II

THE COMPLEX METHOD OF TEACHING

Particular interest is found in the complex method of teaching which is used in all of the elementary schools in Armenia and will be extended to the trade and agricultural schools as soon as instruction material can be prepared. It was started first in Moscow in 1923 and was introduced by the wife of Lenin who was a famous educator. A conference of educational officials was held in Moscow in 1923 and was attended by high officials of the Armenian Commissariat of Education. The complex method was adopted by Armenia in 1924, but it was found that the complexes were too difficult and that the teachers were not prepared to use the new method. A new system of complexes was worked out during the summer of 1926 by officials of the Commissariat of Education. They were submitted to teachers' councils in all parts of Armenia for suggestions and were then revised and published for use throughout Armenia.

Each complex is developed in three columns of which the headings are "Nature and Nature Aspects," "Labor Aspects," and "Social Aspects." The development of the complex starts with the central column—"Labor Aspects." The children do the work related to the complex if it is suited to their abilities. If not, they merely learn something about the process. From "Labor Aspects" in the central column, the school work proceeds to "Nature Aspects" in the left column, and then to "Social Aspects" in the right column.

The "Winter Complex" of the first school year may be taken as an illustration.

Labor Aspects Life and labor in winter time; work of the school in winter; heating homes; work in connection with hygiene of the classroom—ventilation as an example; games in the open air under the direction of the teacher; cleaning snow from about the school; organization of morning and evening social gatherings; program of what children are to carry out in their own homes in such matters as hygiene, agriculture—looking after animals in winter.

Nature Aspects Observation of snow; making an elementary day-book on nature, studying winter winds; noting the warmest and the coldest days; noting the position of the sun; cloudy and clear days; observation of water in rivers, streams, and wells, where ice forms; plants in winter; buds on trees, clearing away snow from plants to observe their condition, what birds and animals remain; observe tracks of animals in the snow; excursions, pictures of winter scenes in other countries. In keeping their diaries the children make sketches of winter scenes about them

Social Aspects. Winter time in the home, what each member of the family does; winter evenings in the home; tales of people who have visited towns; who of the family go to town in winter; what is sold and what purchased; economic ties between the city laborer and the peasant; rich and poor families in the village; who does the work in those families; hired labor in the more wealthy families.

The general subject of the complexes in the four years of the elementary school and some of the subtopics follow. In the first three years they are developed by seasons, the "Fall Complex," the "Winter Complex," and the "Spring Complex."

First Year: Family Life and the School.

1. The child's first day in school.
2. The health of the child in the school and its relation to the home.

Second Year: The Village and Its Relation to the Family

Third Year: Armenia as a Whole.

- 1 Our village and its surroundings.
- 2 Our district and our cities.
3. Our country—its relations to Transcaucasia and the Soviet Union.

Fourth Year: General Relations.

1. Man in relation to hygiene, physiology, and social relations; organization of various social agencies—drug stores, hospitals, the Department of Health.
2. What the October Revolution has given to the peasant—freedom, use of land; political subjects, what the Revolution has given to the Armenian nation and to the other nations in the Soviet Union.
3. The Soviet Union
4. The world as a whole; continents; countries; economic and other ties between countries.

In developing a complex, each topic is always referred back to the village. The emphasis given to the dissemination of health information is noteworthy. It should be mentioned also that education in national economics is part of the function of the educational system. In rural places particularly, if there is some information that needs to be disseminated, it is done through the schools.

How does the complex method of teaching compare with the project method in its application of the laws of learning? A project has been defined as a "whole-hearted, purposeful activity carried to completion in its natural environment." Although the complex provides for experiences related to the familiar home and village environment of the child, it does not ensure provision for whole-hearted, purposeful activity. It is developed more formally, following a printed course and carrying through first the activities related to the labor aspects of the complex and then making applications to the nature and social aspects. The complex does provide, however, for the child to have wholesome experiences in a natural setting. Although there is no assurance that the teacher gives much attention to the acceptance by the child of the activities as his own purpose, the natural life situations which the complex develops are likely to be interesting to the child and to be carried through with more enthusiasm than was common when instruction was divided into several compartments. There is reason to believe that the complex frequently provides situations suitable for the favorable operation of the "Law of Readiness." As the child observes with satisfaction the relation of his school activities to the home and village situations, as when he is engaged in the labor aspects of a health complex, the "Law of Effect" will also operate favorably for the accomplishment of the school objectives. It is more doubtful whether there is regularly enough repetition, drill, and review to provide for the favorable operation of the "Law of Ex-

ercise." In general, then, it may be stated that the complex is a step in advance of the method of teaching by distinct subjects in that it provides more readily for natural life situations, but that it does not go so far as the project in making use of the laws of learning.

NEAR EAST RELIEF SCHOOLS

A discussion of education in Armenia would be entirely inadequate without a fuller statement of the work of Near East Relief in that war-devastated country. The comparatively rapid rise of the southern Caucasus region from the desolation caused by the repeated passage of hostile armies and the influx of large numbers of destitute refugees to its present state of agricultural and industrial activity can be traced largely to the effects of a vast American philanthropy. The early stage of the work was emergency life saving. Hundreds of thousands of men and women were rescued from starvation and disease by the distribution of shiploads of food and the work of great hospitals and an extensive public-health program. To avoid pauperizing the people, they were required to labor in so far as their physical condition warranted in return for rations of corn grits and flour. The labor was expended on road construction, building reconstruction, and other public-service enterprises. At the same time thousands of orphan children were gathered into institutions which were at first merely vast hospitals. Bullock carts went out every morning through the streets and country lanes and returned loaded with emaciated children, many of whom had been living for days on grass, leaves, and even clay, as the distended condition of their abdomens evidenced. Sometimes when the carts reached the hospital gates with their pathetic cargoes, it was found that death had won the race and two or three of the children were beyond the pangs of suffering. At one time the death rate in the hospitals, in which thousands of children were being cared

for, reached the appalling figure of three hundred per week in spite of the unremitting efforts of American physicians and nurses. Under such conditions little thought could be given to educational developments. It is hard to believe now as one watches the thousands of healthy, robust, and happy youngsters in Near East Relief classrooms, workshops or homemaking groups, or on the playgrounds, or working out agricultural projects on individual plots of land, that they have been through the horrors of those early days. But after all, they represent the survival of the fittest and hardiest, and in many cases of the brightest as well.

Without attempting to trace the development of the Near East Relief educational system since the early days of emergency relief, some of its present outstanding contributions to education in Armenia will be briefly outlined. The orphanage schools are organized as kindergarten, elementary school of four years, lower vocational school of three years, and the three-year higher vocational school. All children of suitable ages attend the kindergarten and elementary schools. Differentiation begins with the lower vocational schools. According to American standards this seems to be an early age to begin specific vocational training, but it must be remembered that the children in these schools are orphans and that it is the policy of the organization to place them out in self-support not later than the age of sixteen. Throughout the Near East economic conditions are such that even able-bodied men frequently find it difficult to secure employment and it would be hopeless for the youth graduating from the orphanage schools to earn a living unless they were well trained vocationally. This need has led to one of the greatest contributions of Near East Relief to education in the countries in which it operates; namely, its emphasis on vocational education and its development of efficient vocational schools and trade courses suited to the countries in which the children will

live. These schools and courses have furnished a model that has already affected noticeably other school systems in the Near East which have, heretofore, in common with schools in other parts of the world, given far too much emphasis comparatively to general education.

The lower vocational schools consist of the Industrial School, the Agricultural School, and the Homemaking School. In the Industrial School, considerable progress has been made in the construction of trade courses on the unit operation method, based on the analysis of trades as practised in Armenia.¹ The first step was to list the various skills employed by a master tradesman and the facts or "trade secrets" that he must know in order to carry out the work of his trade. Next a list was made of the jobs or projects that would give practice in some of the skills and would require the student to master the facts involved. The jobs selected were of varying degrees of difficulty and would result in articles that were needed in the orphanages or could be readily sold. The third step was to write down the instructions which the trade teacher would give a boy to enable him to carry out the manual operations and to learn the "trade secrets" involved. Finally, an exhibit case was set up in each shop in which was placed the best of the articles produced by the boys in carrying out the jobs. This series of articles was to be used by the boys who entered the course later as a sample of the projects from which they could select. It was to be added to from time to time whenever a demand was found for other articles. When a boy produced a better piece of work than the one found in the exhibit case, his handiwork occupied the place of honor. The construction of courses based on this plan is under way for tailoring, shoemaking, tin-smithing, woodworking, and locksmithing. After the unit instruction sheets in mimeograph form have been tried

¹The plan is similar to that described in R. W. Selvidge *How to Teach a Trade*

out in the trade school for a year, it is planned to print them and make them available for general use in Armenia.

The agricultural training carried on in Near East Relief schools in Armenia is one of the most important developments in all its extensive activities. The Armenian Government turned over to the relief organization a vast ranch at Karakala with both upland grazing ranges and lowland hay fields. For several years courses in dairy management, cheese making, and related branches were taught to about one hundred selected boys, many of whom have graduated and have used their knowledge and experience in modern methods of animal husbandry to improve and enrich widely scattered parts of rural Armenia. Blooded bulls have been imported from Switzerland and the United States and some of their progeny have been given to groups of graduated orphan boys, to become the head of their dairy herds. In addition to the Karakala project, a general agricultural school with nearly a thousand boys and girls was carried on at Stepanavan. Agricultural experts who have been sent from America have made an extensive survey of rural conditions and needs, and have organized the courses of study. Textbooks have been written with instruction especially suited to conditions in Transcaucasia. With the concentration of Near East Relief activities which took place in 1926, the great ranch at Karakala was returned to the Government and the dairy herd was transported to the orphanage school at Polygon near Leninakan. Developments in agricultural education are continuing there under the direction of an American expert. The importance of these activities, not only in the practical education suited to the needs of the country which they have given to hundreds of orphan youth, but also to the general development of the country, can hardly be overemphasized.

Courses in the Homemaking School are being worked out similarly to those in the Industrial School mentioned above; they are based on an analysis of skills and facts

needed for successful practice of homemaking in Armenia. The aim has been to train the children above the common practice of the country by introducing scientific knowledge on matters of hygiene, sanitation, food selection, care of children, and other aspects of homemaking, but to avoid over-training the children in such a way as to make them ill adapted for happy living in the environment to which they will go when they leave the orphanage schools. Much emphasis is placed on practical work and a half of each school day is spent in homemaking work in the orphanage home. Groups of the older girls who are about ready to graduate from the orphanage school spend three months living in the "Model Village" where they take complete care of themselves under the direction of a homemaking teacher, going to the orphanage only for school and for health inspection in the hospital. In addition to all the elements of homemaking, these girls have practical experience and instruction in the care of cows and calves, sheep, hogs and poultry, and in milking, care of milk, and cheese making.

The higher vocational schools are the Teacher Training School, the Edith Winchester School for Nurses, Industrial Teacher Training, Agricultural Teacher Training, Physical Education Teacher Training, and the Secretarial Courses. There are no general secondary schools, only vocational schools. Highly selected children who have passed through the lower vocational schools are chosen for these courses. The selection of these children is on the basis of school work, vocational aptitude, social efficiency as shown in the orphanage home, health, and a personal interview. The demand for graduates of these schools far exceeds the supply. Over 160 have graduated from the teacher-training courses and are working all over Armenia to improve educational opportunities. Some of them have attained the position of head teacher in rural schools. The Edith Winchester School for Nurses is the

only institution of the kind in Armenia. Its graduates are serving in hospitals and as public-health nurses in many parts of the country. The Government is highly appreciative of the training they have received and of the splendid service they are rendering in the improvement of health and sanitary conditions.

In parts of northern Russia where war orphans were left to shift for themselves, one finds the gangs of "Besporzorni," the wolfish children who range from town to town, a menace to the present and future welfare of the country. In contrast, the traveler finds in many parts of Armenia (and in fact throughout the Near East) boys and girls, young men and women, who have graduated from Near East Relief orphanage schools and are taking a normal, healthy part in community life. The standards of useful, coöperative work, cleanliness, personal hygiene, sanitation, and moral character, which have become a part of themselves because of the atmosphere in which they have grown up, are a leavening influence in their communities. The great investment which America has made through the Near East Relief has not only saved the lives of hundreds of thousands of people (estimated at well over one and a half million); of possibly even greater importance for the peace and progress of that part of the world are the sending out of these thousands of orphan graduates imbued with the desire to serve their communities as an expression of their appreciation for what has been done for them; the system of vocational education which it has set up and which has become a model for other educational systems; and its very practical application of international good will.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

EDITORIAL NOTE: *It is designed to make this department a clearing house for (1) information about current research projects of interest in educational sociology and (2) for ideas with reference to research methods and techniques in this field. Readers are urged to report projects and suggestions as to methods of research. This department desires to encourage and stimulate cooperation in research.*

SOCIOLOGICAL RESEARCH IN FAMILIAL LAW

The research in familial law being carried on under the auspices of the Columbia Law School by Professors Albert Jacobs of the law faculty and Robert Angell of the sociology department, University of Michigan, and three assistants is an attempt to bring the legal rules in regard to the family under the scrutiny of the findings of the social sciences, especially sociology. All accumulated evidence with respect to family life will be organized, with the aim of making a critique of the law wherever possible. Where sufficient evidence is not now available, an attempt will be made to point the way to further research. Intensive, original research is contemplated in this study in only one small area of family law. An advisory committee of experts in this field has been organized.

This research project in the field of familial law is another indication of the general tendency to apply sociological techniques and points of view to related fields where sociological facts have an important bearing upon practical procedures. This is the task of educational sociology, which gives sociology an opportunity to be of service in the field of education by applying sociological methods and carrying on educational research from the sociological point of view.

CHARACTER EDUCATION IN DETROIT

The first report of the Detroit Committee on Character Education which describes the 1925 experiment in this field

has been published by the authority of the Board of Education of the City of Detroit.

RESEARCH ON DEVELOPMENTAL AGE¹

"Developmental age" (DA) is defined as the maturity of a child as shown by his reactions in play, his reactions to his fellows, and his general maturity of personality. Thus we say that the girl who plays with dolls has a lower DA than the girl who enjoys social dancing even though both may have the same birthday age.

To study this variable two techniques are being used: (1) An objective paper-and-pencil test has been developed and has been validated by a rating scale constructed for that purpose; both the test and the rating scale have satisfactory reliabilities and validities for the purpose of research; (2) a number of case studies are being made of normal boys at different age levels to determine the characteristics of children at these ages.

Certain data have been discovered in the course of this investigation tending to show that DA is related to physical factors and is relatively independent of MA (mental age) after CA (chronological age) is partialled out.

THE OHIO SOCIOLOGIST

Items of interest to educational sociologists are published from time to time in the bulletin of the Ohio Sociological Society, known as the *Ohio Sociologist*, published at Ohio State University. Mr. F. G. Detweiler, professor of sociology and dean of Denison University is president of the Society.

SOCIAL RESEARCH UNDER THE COMMONWEALTH FUND

The Commonwealth Fund which was organized in 1918 as a general philanthropic foundation now has an endow-

¹This research is being conducted by Dr. Paul Hanley Furfey at the Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C.

ment of over \$28,000,000 with an income last year of \$2,129,748. Last year \$1,100,000 was spent to improve the physical and mental health of American children. Demonstrations of health work are being carried on in Rutherford County, Tennessee, Athens, Georgia, and Marion County, Oregon. A five-year program has been completed in Fargo, North Dakota. The appropriations of the fund last year for the development of child-guidance clinics, visiting-teacher work in the public schools, and allied projects in the field of mental hygiene amounted to \$697,000.

The fund's demonstrations which extended over a five-year period ending June, 1927, have resulted in the establishment of community clinics for the study and treatment of children's behavior problems in Cleveland, Philadelphia, St. Louis, St. Paul, Minneapolis, Dallas, Baltimore, Richmond, Milwaukee, Los Angeles, and Pasadena, California. Visiting teacher work has been organized in the public-school system of fifty-eight communities located in thirty-two different States as the result of three-year demonstrations in this field. As a result of the Fund's mental-hygiene program, the Institute for Child Guidance was established in New York City under the direction of Dr. Lawson G. Lowrey. This institute is fully equipped for research as well as for treatment of problem children. Its fellowships are administered by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene.

BOOK REVIEWS

Principles and Methods of Junior High School Mathematics, by J. HERBERT BLACKHURST, Drake University. The Century Company, 1928. 347 pages.

The author states that the book is the result of several years of effort to give to students in special-methods classes in junior-high-school mathematics such experience as will best prepare them for classroom teaching. The emphasis is placed upon junior-high-school mathematics and not upon the subject as a whole. The ultimate educational goals are not neglected, but the book is devoted very largely to a practical consideration of the content of the junior-high-school mathematics curriculum. It is recognized that the work in mathematics of the seventh, eighth, and ninth years needs to be further reorganized, and that this book, therefore, is not the last word on the subject.

In the first chapter the author divides the ultimate aims in education into three classes—those leading to (1) economic efficiency, (2) civic-social efficiency, and (3) cultural efficiency. The problem of determining the values of junior-high-school mathematics then becomes one of determining the extent to which mathematics at this level will fit the individual to function effectively along these lines. In other words, how will the study of mathematics aid in developing these economic, civic-social, cultural ends? A convincing argument is set forth.

Geometry of the junior-high-school period is presented, and the prevailing opinions given. Intuitive geometry should come first and precede demonstrative geometry. The values of algebra to the student are largely indirect. Habits, abilities, and attitudes are undoubtedly developed, and thus a disciplinary and cultural value is present. Algebra presents an opportunity for rigid thinking in the abstract—hence its value.

In the chapter on "Transfer of Training" the best present-day thought seems to be accepted. Training does transfer from the school-room situations to life situations providing the ability is present to recognize known elements and to see relationships.

The author believes that mathematics in the junior high school can be most effectively taught in units, and that the further reorganization should proceed along such lines. Regarding drill procedure, care must be taken first to determine the most desirable procedure. Drill periods should be short and intense and repeated at spaced intervals, also drills should be motivated as much as possible. Some exercises for drill are given.

Chapter IX is devoted to a presentation of the project method and a number of projects listed. If these are well thought out and planned they should be most valuable.

The final chapter—Chapter X—on “Testing the Results of Teaching Mathematics” is rich with suggestions. The preparation of the examination questions is important and the teacher must know clearly the object of her testing. The “standards” should be known by both teacher and pupils and full use made of the standardized tests.

JOHN A. ENTZ

Handbook of Rural Social Resources, edited by BENSON Y. LANDIS. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1928. 226 pages.

The 1928 *Handbook of Rural Social Resources*, the second in the series, is a most valuable document, presenting new developments and supplementary data. It is well written, concise, and, in spite of the fact that it is the composite work of fifteen experts, is remarkably well coordinated. It well illustrates the fact that one cannot write about one segment of social life without throwing light on the functioning and organization of the whole structure. The book is a real contribution to the general as well as to the specific field.

The major portion of the book, Part I, deals in analyses and interpretations of more recent developments in rural life. It starts with the consideration of two fundamentals, population and the standard of living. One might wish that more than twenty-six pages had been devoted to these subjects perhaps at the expense of the third chapter which deals with the development of rural art. The chapters immediately following are more institutional in nature dealing with education, rural social work, the work of the church with separate treatments of that of the Catholics and the Protestants, recreation, the organization of women and legislation. Part I concludes with an analysis of the more definitely economic aspects of the problem. Cooperative marketing, farm credit, farm taxation, and agricultural production, prices and income are discussed with a final statement of some European agricultural policies.

This first portion of the book presents the major rural social problems in a scholarly and unimpassioned manner, well backed with data.

Part II devotes fifty-six pages to a catalogue of what is being done about these problems. Some thirty-three agencies, direct and affiliated, public and private, are listed. Each is described on the basis of organization, purpose, service rendered, methods, territory covered, publications, officers, headquarters, et cetera. While Part II does not make particularly thrilling reading it makes a very important bit of information remarkably accessible.

C. G. DITTMER

The New Criminology, by MAX T. SCHLAPP and EDWARD SMITH. New York: Boni and Liveright, 1928.

The New Criminology is based upon the late Dr. Schlapp's long experience as clinical neurologist at the New York Post-Graduate Hospital and at the New York Children's Court. Dr. Schlapp enjoyed an enviable reputation as a successful practitioner. He was frequently called into the criminal courts to give expert testimony. Because of his reputation and success his observations upon criminal behavior deserve a careful hearing.

Dr Schlapp stands squarely on the proposition that antisocial and criminal behavior is the result of disordered physiological processes. "If it can be shown that criminality is in fact the result of biological causes, that infants come into the world predestined to antisocial conduct by flaws in their mental and nervous makeup, then the sociological treatment of the trouble is at once rendered absurd . . . This is, in fact, the prospect that confronts us, for criminals *are* born into the world with their destiny largely determined . . ." This destiny is not determined by heredity, however, but by imbalances of the endocrine glands produced by similar imbalances in the mother during the period of gestation. Glandular imbalance results in disorders of emotion. From the ranks of the emotionally disordered come our criminals. Dr. Schlapp buttresses his thesis with a wealth of interesting case material demonstrating the influence of glandular imbalance on behavior, and the remarkable changes in personality that follow upon glandular treatment.

The reviewer does not call into question the amply established fact that glandular disturbances give rise to marked disorders of behavior. But to reverse the proposition, as Dr. Schlapp does, and to maintain that all disordered behavior is the product of glandular imbalance, is another matter. The psychologist will object that the processes involved in forming useful and disserviceable habits are identical, and that the presence of antisocial habits in a child or adult does not of necessity imply a disordered physiological state. The experiments of Watson and several of the cases of Wooley indicate that emotional disturbance may result from unfortunate conditioning (that this unfortunate conditioning may give rise after a time to glandular imbalance is beside the point). The sociologist will observe that habits which prove serviceable in adjusting in a given group (family or community) may involve the individual in conflicts (antisocial behavior) when carried over into another group; or that the person may be participating in two groups (an immigrant family and an American school) which define a situation in diametrically opposite ways. Thrasher's *The Gang* affords much interesting material showing how the quite normal play activities of the boy, expressing themselves in the physical environment of the slum, bring the boy into conflict with the law. Shaw has shown the role neighborhood tradition plays in setting the delinquent attitude.

The experience of the clinic often warps our conceptions of behavior. One suspects that Dr. Schlapp's contacts were predominantly with cases referred to him, as an endocrinologist, because the question of glandular disease had already been raised. However this may be, *The New Criminology* is a thought-provoking book, and one of the best presentations of the point of view of the endocrinologist that has appeared.

HARVEY ZORBAUGH

Mental Tests in Clinical Practice, by F. L. WELLS. Yonkers-on-Hudson: The World Book Company, 1927. x + 315 pages.

Aptitude Testing, by CLARK L. HULL. Yonkers-on-Hudson: The World Book Company, 1928. xiv + 535 pages.

Measurements of Intelligence by Drawings, by FLORENCE L. GOODENOUGH. Yonkers-on-Hudson: The World Book Company, 1926. xi + 177 pages.

Mental Tests in Clinical Practice is an introductory manual on the selection and interpretation of tests as aids to individual diagnosis. The author writes from a broad experience as chief of the Psychological Laboratory at the Boston Psychopathic Hospital. There are chapters on the scope and procedure, office methods, and general examination methods of the clinic. The use and interpretation of intelligence scales and of performance tests is critically discussed. A particularly interesting chapter is that on the Free Association Experiment, where the accumulated results of recent clinical experience are for the first time adequately summarized. An excellent bibliography brings together all the significant literature on testing and clinical practice that has appeared since 1918. It is one thing to have a flawless technique in administering tests, another to be able to interpret test results, it is one thing to be able to interpret group tests, another to be able to interpret individual tests in clinical diagnosis. *Mental Tests in Clinical Practice* will prove of great aid to psychometricians in the intelligent interpretation of the results of individual tests.

Aptitude Testing deals with the construction of tests, assembly of test batteries, and diagnosis of original nature traits which correlate with success or failure in the more important type occupations. The first part of the book deals with the nature of aptitude differences, anatomical and other signs of aptitude, the construction of tests for aptitude, and varieties of tests now in use for testing aptitude. The second part of the book describes methods for the analysis of occupational behavior, the experimental assembly of test batteries, and the

prediction of individual aptitude for type occupations. Conversion tables and a comprehensive bibliography are appended. Dr. Hull's book is unquestionably one of the best that has appeared in the field of vocational psychology.

Measurement of Intelligence by Drawings is the account of the experimental construction of a performance test for general intelligence based solely on the subject's ability to draw "a man." The drawing is scored on 51 quite objective criteria, such as "hair shown," "two articles of clothing nontransparent," etc. The average correlation with Stanford-Binet mental age is .763 for ages 4 to 12 taken separately. Scores are influenced by special coaching in drawing the human figure; but are unaffected by the art instruction ordinarily given in the primary grades. Artistic ability appears to be a negligible factor at these ages so far as influencing the score is concerned. While the test can hardly be said to be adequately standardized, it deserves the attention of clinicians and is distinctly worth experimenting with. Tentative experiments indicate the possibility of using the test to throw light on children's neuroses.

These three volumes are a distinct contribution to the excellent series of monographs on measurement and adjustment which the World Book Company is publishing under the editorship of Lewis M. Terman.

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH

How to Make the Periodic Health Examination, by FISK and CRAWFORD. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927.

College Textbook of Hygiene, by SMILEY and GOULD. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1928.

Personal Hygiene, by A. GERTRUDE JACOB. Boston: The Christopher Publishing House, 1928.

Learning Exercises in Food and Nutrition, by ANNA BELLE ROBINSON and FLORENCE M. KING. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1928.

Probably no field of endeavor is witnessing more activity than the field of health and health education. This is true not only of courses in universities, newspaper and magazine discussion, but also in the number of books that come from the press. Dr. Fisk, who is one of the authors of a new book on *The Periodic Health Examination*, has contributed widely and among his contributions are two books whose sales have run into the thousands. In this recent book the authors have presented a body of data which might stagger the layman but is an invaluable contribution to the movement in favor of universal periodic

health examination. The real difficulty in making the periodic health examination is the unfamiliarity of physicians with the technique of such an examination. There is no longer a need for unfamiliarity with such an examination or its significance.

A second book entitled *College Textbook of Hygiene* serves another purpose. It is designed to provide the college teacher with a handbook for courses in hygiene and covers the topics usually included in the conventional text of physiology and hygiene. It may be said that the book is well written and includes rather adequate discussion of the newer scientific development in its field.

A totally different book is that by Miss Jacob on *Personal Hygiene* adapted to the use of high schools. Miss Jacob has grasped the real significance of the modern movement in health education and has emphasized personal practices in hygiene. The book covers the more important factors in personal hygiene and is written so as to appeal to students of high-school age. Such a book is bound to influence the teaching of health in our secondary schools.

The fourth book in this list, *Learning Exercises in Food and Nutrition*, is a small one, but its worth cannot be judged by its size. It attempts to present the recent developments in food and nutrition in the form of exercises, and is valuable because of its concreteness. It proposes to present a laboratory procedure in the preparation of foods and in the development of good food habits. It will serve well as a handbook of the teacher of home economics in her classes in nutrition. One of the attractive features is the choice recipes that are presented in the latter portion of the book which provides dishes required in the exercises. All of these books ought to be familiar to the person interested in the modern problem of health education.

Elementary Science Readers, by E. GEORGE PAYNE, HENRY R. BARROWS, and LOUIS J. SCHMERBER. New York: Benjamin H. Sanborn, 1928.

Books III and IV of the science series came to my desk a few days ago. They measure up to, yes, I think they surpass, the high grade of excellence incorporated in Books I and II.

One can feel a good book. The publisher has made most attractive books of this series. In these last two, the wide page, an attractive and restful type, good margins, and most excellent and skillfully chosen half-tone illustrations attract one to the text.

Then the real enjoyment begins. One reads, and from the first interesting and stimulating paragraph of the third book to the last page of the story of "milk and science" in the fourth book, one reads for enjoyment and gets information.

The authors have told the stories of our physical, chemical, and biological world in an orderly and scientific manner. A few cold facts,

but always related to the needs and experiences of the young reader. Processes are described in a manner that the writer of a textbook of chemistry, physics, and other sciences might well employ. The stories revolve about the present-day boy and girl, they tell him just the thing he has wanted to know, in the way he likes to learn it. He reads for himself, either the story of the first balloon and how it evolved into a Zeppelin like that which sailed from Germany to start a regular passenger service. The story of the Health Heroes, Jenner, Pasteur, Lister, Trudeau, and Walter Reed are thrilling exploits of real live men who seem to live and breathe right through the pages. And most of all, the better world they left after their work is a challenge to the reader and is bound to produce an emotional response.

The Science Readers are going to fill a long-felt need. Our present-day educators agree that there must be more science. In the grades, it must be of an exploratory nature. Elementary Science Readers are not only an excellent contribution in well-organized supplementary reading, but Books III and IV also are most excellent basal texts for a modern course in elementary science.

There is a wealth of material offered and no end of contacts are made based upon the pupil's experiences in geography, civics, and history. Each story is told as a separate unit, each teaches a lesson, each has a purpose.

The authors have made a real contribution in the Science Readers. They have presented the facts of science in an attractive form, without burdening the pupil with a technical vocabulary. I predict that these readers will create a desire for more reading in science and I am certain that those who read are going to change both social and personal habits.

Even you will grow interested, excited, and will read from cover to cover as I did. If you have a young boy or girl in your home, you will have to struggle to get the books from the young people. That is the best endorsement of the Elementary Science Readers.

FRANK M. WHEAT

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

The uniting of two of America's best-known educational magazines took effect when the *Educational Review*, recently acquired by Doubleday, Doran and Company, was combined with *School and Society*. The magazine will be published weekly throughout the year under the editorship of J. McKeen Cattell, collaborator of William McAndrew, formerly principal of the Washington Irving High School and associate superintendent of New York City schools, later superintendent of schools in Chicago. The *Educational Review* was established in 1891 by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, now president of Columbia University. It was run under his editorial direction for 29 years; under Frank C. Graves, former dean of the School of Education, University of Pennsylvania, New York State Commissioner of Education, for four years, after which time William McAndrew, at the time superintendent of the Chicago schools, became the editor.

Miss Olive M. Jones, principal of Public School 120, Manhattan, and former president of the National Education Association, who expects to retire on February 1, 1929, to assume the educational directorship of Calvary Episcopal Church, New York, was elected president of the New York Academy of Public Education at the annual meeting held at the College of the City of New York, October 25.

Dr. E. E. Lindsay has joined the staff of the School of Education of the University of Pittsburgh. He came to Pittsburgh from Pullman, Washington, where he was connected with Washington State College.

Dr. Henry Suzzallo, former president of the University of Washington, addressed a convocation of the students of the School of Education of New York University, November 24. This meeting was held under the auspices of the Pi Lambda Theta Society of the institution.

Professor Franklin W. Johnson of the department of secondary education of Teachers College has been elected and has accepted the presidency of Colby College at Waterville, Maine, beginning his duties in September, 1929.

Professor Arvil S. Barr of the School of Education of the University of Wisconsin has recently taken over the editorship of the *Journal of Educational Research*. We, of the editorial staff of this journal, extend our hearty greetings to Editor Barr in his new activity.

The Section on Educational Sociology of the American Sociological Society enjoyed the following program at the Twenty-third Annual Meeting of the Society at Chicago, December 26-29 (1928). This section met in joint session with the National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology, Thursday, December 27, 10 00-12 00 a. m., Dr. Daniel H. Kulp, Columbia University, presiding.

"The Rural Community as a Unit for Rural Administration,"

Dwight Sanderson, Cornell University

Discussion by A. W. Hayes, Marshall College

"Adaptation of Educational Administration to Rural Communities,"
Frank A. Works, University of Chicago

Thursday Luncheon Meeting

"Problems of Rural Education Demanding Sociological Research," Daniel H. Kulp II, Columbia University. President's Annual Address. "Some Investigations into Rural Life with Curriculum Implications," Edmund D. S. Brunner, Institute of Social and Religious Research, New York City

Friday Luncheon Meeting, 1230-3.00

Dr. David Snedden, Teachers College, reporting for the Committee on the Objectives in Education

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Miss Agnes Conklin is a psychologist of the Erasmus Hall High School of Brooklyn. She holds the bachelor's and the master's degrees from Columbia University. She is now working for her doctorate at New York University.

Professor H. G. Duncan, associate professor of sociology of the University of North Carolina is a native of North Carolina. He received his A.B. degree from Wake Forest College; A.M., University of Pennsylvania, Ph.D., Southern Baptist Theological Seminary; and the Ph.D., University of Pennsylvania. Professor Duncan has held teaching positions at the University of Illinois, University of Southern California, before going to his present position. He is the author of a new book on *Race and Population Problems*.

Mr. Aaron D. Fleshler was born in Bessarabia, then a part of Russia. Since coming to the United States, in 1912 he has received a Sc.B. degree from Cooper Union, and a diploma from the Jewish Teachers Seminary of New York City. Mr. Fleshler has been a teacher in the Jewish Schools for the religious education of Jewish children in different sections of New York City.

Miss Olive M. Jones has been one of the prominent members and leaders in the National Education Association for several years, being a member of various commissions, a trustee, the New York State director, and the association's president in 1923-1924.

Professor George Mills Wilcox, head of the department of education, Huron College, Huron, South Dakota, was born in Foochow, China. He received his A.B. at Cornell College, Mount Vernon, Iowa; his A.M., at the State University of Iowa, and he has continued his graduate study towards a doctorate at Columbia. For a number of years he was director of education of the Near East Relief and in charge of the orphan schools in Greece, Syria, and other Near East Countries.

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EDITORIAL

The editor of THE JOURNAL has received a letter from Mr. Walter Barnes which, although not inspired directly by previous editorials in THE JOURNAL, bears so directly upon them that it ought to have a place in the editorial column. THE JOURNAL has frequently advocated a scientific method in sociology and has committed itself to the scientific approach in the study of social data. This letter presents another emphasis. We, therefore, give it place on this page. The statement is as follows:

"Since I am neither a sociologist nor a philosopher, *therefore* I feel free to philosophize sociologically. Fools *ought* to rush in where angels fear to tread: in that way fools will make the world safe for the angels.

"I can understand why sociologists are averse to the philosophical method, if philosophers *have* a method: The aforesaid sociologists wish to woo the scientific maiden, who, according to all accounts, is a jealous miss, not at all willing to divide her affections. Nevertheless, I find it in my heart to desire, in all seriousness, that sociologists, in their zeal to place their subject on a scientific basis (which is the basis it should be on), should not be so neglectful nor so scornful of philosophy.

"If there is any one in the world who should philosophize, who needs to philosophize, who has to philosophize, it is the sociologist. If he deals with the past, with primitive cultures, for example, how can he, if he is intellectually curious, fail to wonder how primitive man 'got that way,' and having wondered, how can he fail to try to explain? If he deals with crowds and 'their tricks and manners,' how can he satisfy himself until he gets hold of some underlying principle of life? And if he deal with some of the applications of sociology (with educational sociology, for example), if he believes in the telic functions of sociology, how can he be intellectually honest until he has come to conclusions about the meaning of life? How can he help the world along toward its goal until he has made up his own mind what the goal is? How can he further progress if he refuses to define progress, and takes the easy way out?

"But so far as I am concerned, I don't want the philosopher, the 'pure,' speculative philosopher to do it. The one person who is best equipped to do the most important thing in the universe, to tell mankind where it is going and how to get there, is the sociologist. For he is the only man that knows mankind. The psychologist may know man, but a mere collection of men, the sum total of all men isn't mankind. And the arm-chair philosopher, who, remote from life and suffering, perhaps, from dyspepsia or idealism, gets hold of some attractive theory, then pulls and tugs at the facts of life until he has fitted it all nicely and snugly into his theory—what hope is there in him?

"But the sociologist, facing frankly and scientifically the raw, brute facts of life, seeing mankind in the rough and in the large, able to compare society now with what it has been, armed with the information needed to trace the sinuous, half-obliterated path that mankind has made from the beginnings up to (or *down* to) the present, he is the one person who may hope to interpret life, explain man to himself, read the riddle of the universe.

"Sociology must be both a science and a philosophy. It is the only study that must look both ways: out on the facts of life and then forward and backward (and up-word?) to the great truths and principles and tendencies and trends and drifts of life.

"I am aware, of course, of the necessity that each new study differentiate itself, disentangle itself from other related studies. And I can understand—at least in part—the desire of the sociologist to establish his subject on an objective, scientific foundation. Well, let the sociologist continue defining and limiting his field, let him continue collecting and collating and interpreting his scientific findings. He may be as assiduously and scrupulously scientific as he chooses: and that is desirable—not that he thus establish himself on a par with scientists in other fields, not that he may have 'standing' in this science-minded age, but that he may have a study of facts at hand with which he may discover and reveal the truths, the elemental, fundamental truths about humanity. Let him *prove* the facts that he may *im-prove* the world."

There is no wish to quarrel with the point of view expressed by Mr. Barnes. There is no wish to deny the importance of a sociological philosophy of education. Many are interested in that aspect of the subject and discussion. Most of the books in fact have approached the study from the philosophical point of view. While THE JOURNAL does not deny its importance, it does feel strongly that the scientific approach offers greatest possibility for the development of a body of facts significant for the reconstruction of our educational procedure. Since so many are interested in the philosophical aspect of the subject, THE JOURNAL is devoting its energies to the development of the scientific side. We, therefore, do not wish to disapprove of the emphasis which Mr. Barnes would give but we insist upon giving the emphasis in which we are interested.

A SOCIO-EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY OF THE CURRICULUM

ROBERT W. FREDERICK

Educators for several years and indeed for centuries have been pecking away at the curriculum. Isolated individuals in recent times have been proclaiming that the school is life, that adult needs must be prepared for, that adult activities must be analyzed into specific habits, skills, and abilities, that dependence must not be put upon hope of transfer, that adult errors must be sought, that the basis of the curriculum must be social needs, that health life is the first essential, that emotionalized attitudes be emphasized, that activities should form the basic structure, that subject matter should be intrinsically valuable, that the survey is the way out, that all educational employees should help make the curriculum, that the old subjects should be revamped, that new subjects must be added, that method is subject-matter, that specific case groups should be studied, so *ad infinitum*.

The result is that confusion reigns supreme, especially on the secondary level. The poor superintendent and principal are so harried and perplexed that the old days of the certainty of the efficacy of Latin and the other "disciplines" gain in attractiveness. The public is also becoming wearied of so many "new-fangled notions" and the rising cost entailed. The educator, safely entrenched in his easy chair, is blamed for the "many ills" which have befallen the schools. Mr DeVoto has proposed no less than hanging for these disrupters of the solid and effective education which produced the DeVotos and his equally erudite and inspired critics.

Thus the time is ripe for some sort of synthesis of all the many ideas. If possible, let us step back as does the artist from his canvas to gain a new perspective. In a

time which seeks a statistical formula by means of which to manage schools and which counts the number of columns in newspapers and magazines to escape the necessity of thinking about school problems, this armchair type of approach is ventured at the risk of reputation and even a hearing.

To gain this perspective it is helpful to recall that most fundamental of all human questions: Why a human race? What is the meaning of existence? Why was I born? What would be lost if the whole human race would suddenly cease to be? What is man's place in the economy of the universe? These and similar questions have been the concern of man down the ages. Still, "we look through a glass darkly," unable, in spite of the researches of Mr. Lodge and Mr. Doyle, to see into the world beyond.

This problem must be left unanswered, but out of it grows a more pertinent one: What shall we do with this existence which a long process of selection has thrust inevitably upon us? A thorough nature has assured the perpetuation of the race of men. Voluntary suicide is untenable. Thus the problem of disposing of our own and others' allotment of years descends upon us who are living today. We are faced inevitably with the question of how we shall spend our time, to what ends and for what purposes shall we direct our energies?

The alternatives are many. The stoic will bear, the "homeless man" will subsist with the least effort, the artist will live for his supreme masterpiece, the hedonist will abstract the last jot and tittle of pleasure, the "flapper" will seek her thrills, the leisure class will seek relief from boredom.

The self-styled "social engineer" will, however, not be satisfied with any such policies to guide in the disposal of man's four-score years and ten. He has a sound and vigorous policy to suggest; namely, that all energy and effort be directed to the improvement of man's lot as a resident

of this earthly home. Stated differently, the best disposal that man can make of his enforced stay on earth is to dedicate his efforts towards the attainment of that final goal when the kingdom of heaven will be reached, when all men shall enjoy life with the maximum of pleasure and the least pain, suffering and hardship. Thus is stated the telic conception of society. The goal is perfection, Utopia, all good for all, the day when war shall cease, when disease shall pass from us, when hunger shall be known no more. It is man's highest privilege to dedicate his efforts towards the attainment of this final state

The implication for the curriculum maker is obvious. His task is to select, group, and classify the learnings or activities through which the school as a social institution may contribute to this onward climb of man towards eventual and ever advancing stages of perfection. Each recommendation, however trivial, must be judged finally in the light of its contribution to the betterment of the lot of man. Unless the date of Poe's birth or the habit of brushing the teeth have a bearing on this fundamental problem they have no place in our schools nor in our life.

The second step in this socio-educational philosophy is the breaking up of man's existence into its component parts or phases. That this step is necessary needs no justification. Life is complex. It is, we are told, becoming increasingly complex. Just as the expert mechanic attacks the stalled motor car through its parts, ignition, fuel supply, transmission, etc., so must the social philosopher separate the far more intricate human life into its elements or parts.

This analysis has been done over and over again. Spencer, Parker, Inglis, Bobbitt, Chapman, and Counts, the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education have all presented various analyses of the major aspects of man's life and interests. Each new classification is, for the most part, only a regrouping, a new definition, or a new emphasis. At the risk of repetition the fol-

lowing classification of man's interests is given with the caution that the divisions are not mutually exclusive.

First, *health* includes the problems of adequate physical vitality or tone, freedom from diseases, all personal and social hygiene. Second, *home or family life* is concerned with the questions of the home as the preserver of the biological inheritance, the proper care and nurture of the young, and the efficient functioning of the sex impulse. Third, *economic life formal* considers the specific vocation, or job, or professional interest. Fourth, *economic life informal* deals with economic interests and problems outside the individual's particular vocation, such as labor vs. capital dispute, wise purchasing, budgeting, saving, etc. Fifth, *associational life formal*, commonly called citizenship, includes all that is involved in one's formal relations with the government. Sixth, *associational life informal* deals with that aspect of human life which considers the more personal contacts, the amenities of life, getting on with one's neighbors, politeness, courtesy, etc. Seventh, *religious life* involves the place of man in the scheme of existence, the fundamental questions of the purpose in life, relation to God, and explanation of phenomena such as death and immortality, which are not amenable to scientific explanation. Eighth, *ethical-moral life* considers the responsibility of man to his fellowmen. It is more restricted in scope than informal associational life. Ninth, *recreational life* or worthy use of leisure is concerned with the whole problem of how to spend our time not occupied with work and other duties, problems of release of tension, relaxation, effects, good and bad, of common recreational pursuits, as fishing, dancing, etc. Tenth, *aesthetic life* is closely allied to the recreational interest. It is different, however, in that this embraces the spiritual, the beautiful, appreciation of wonders, and ennobling aspects of paintings, sculpture, literature; in fact, all art, artificial and natural. It involves that "something plus," that "warm

glow." Eleventh, the *fundamental processes* include expression of ideas orally and in writing, use of numbers, and reading. All these are major human interests because of the indispensable character of these skills in modern life.

If the analysis is correct, then any human interest or concern from birth to death is included. Another step in the building of a curriculum philosophy has been taken. Now the problem may be stated: to make existence most worth while and to advance man towards the perfect state, each individual must be perfected in health, in his home life, and so on.

The next step requires the aid of the sociologist, the statistician, and the social philosopher. This step is to describe what would be the ideal functioning of each of man's fields of activity, to set up standards, and to ascertain wherein these standards fail of attainment. In other words, what should be the recreational life of Americans and what are the defects in the present use of leisure. To illustrate: The major needs in the home life of America may be said to be more stable homes, more children from the favored classes, lower rate of infant mortality, etc. Thus the problem is further refined. It now becomes: how can the infant mortality rate be decreased, the number of divorces decreased, marriages be made more rational?

It is now necessary to decide for which of the needs or defects in each of the fields of human interests the school is responsible. This question seems to be solved by delegating to the school at least partial responsibility for each aspect of life and for all needs in each field. Whether or not this is the proper solution is questionable. It is probably more logical to state that all agencies in society, the press, the home, the church, the school, custom, etc., should be united in the struggle to perfect man in each of his spheres of life. To prevent duplication and neglect some master statesman and thinker is needed to allocate responsibility among the instrumentalities of social control.

Educators must at this stage in the process seek out those learnings or activities which will fulfill the needs for which the school is responsible. This question, in general, has been answered by saying that the school must give knowledges, interests, ideals, habits, attitudes, and powers in each of the fields of human interest. Here indeed is the crux of the matter, for it is no simple task to decide which knowledges, interests, etc., should be given.

Next must be considered what resources the school should employ. The usual plan is to assume that the formal program is the central agency upon which dependence should be placed. This is an assumption which has not been substantiated. The answer is suggested that each aspect of the total school life as the studies, or program, assembly, extra-curricular activities, corridors, methods of teaching, extra-school activities of pupils should be used in the process of transmitting the proper ideals, habits, and knowledges.

To summarize, then, the problem of curriculum construction is reducible to several great steps. These steps or stages are as follows: (1) Since we lack a certain knowledge of the meaning of existence the only alternative is to make the best of life. (2) Human life is so complex that any improvement must be preceded by an analysis of the great common or universal interest or aspects of man's life, the malfunctioning or omission of any one of which would seriously handicap man's search after the ultimate Utopia. (3) Having thus separated for convenience man's major concerns we must now find the defects and needs in each. (4) This done, the responsibility for improvement must be allocated to the major instrumentalities of social control. (5) Having determined for which fields or which needs in each field the school is responsible, the educators' next duty is to decide what knowledges, interests, ideals, habits, powers, and attitudes must be given to meet these needs. (6) Finally, the several aspects of school life which are to be

used must be selected and the exact contribution of each determined.

Thus is set up a task which offers unparalleled opportunity and unequalled complexity. Besides this problem others lose in significance. Much has been done but the major portion of the work lies ahead. The psychologist, sociologist, statistician, philosopher, educator, economist, layman, must unite their efforts if this great task is to be consummated or any progress made.

HEALTH EDUCATION AND THE PUBLIC HEALTH OF THE FUTURE¹

IAGO GALDSTON

In his admirable essay of the "Evolution of the Modern Health Campaign," Professor Winslow divides the history of the movement into three periods. The first period dating from 1840 to 1890 was characterized by the application of environmental sanitation, especially affecting water, sewage disposal, quarantine, and the like. The second period dating from 1890 to 1910 witnessed the phenomenal advance in the control of the communicable diseases resultant on the application of the newer knowledge of bacteriology. The third, or present period dating from about 1910, is characterized by its dominant motive, the education of the individual in the principles and practices of good personal hygiene.

Concerned as we are, at present, with health education and the public health of the future, our prime interest must of necessity center upon the third of these three outlined periods. It will profit us, however, to review the preceding periods, and to see what causative relationship there exists between them.

Within that space of seventy years from 1840 to 1910 is encompassed the greater part of the achievements of modern medicine and public health. How great these achievements are—few of us are competent to appreciate, save in a rather remote and impersonal manner. For most of us have been born into the advantages of modern medicine. The horrors of the plagues that beset and made dismal the lives of our ancestors are known to us only by hearsay. What know we of bubonic plague? What of smallpox, typhus, yellow fever, or typhoid? But rarely

¹Address delivered at the Twentieth Anniversary Meeting of the Michigan Tuberculosis Association, Lansing, Michigan

now do these diseases appear, and then only in sporadic form—the flaring up, as it were, of the dying embers of a fire that throughout the ages has consumed more human lives than all the wars of the world.

In contrast, however, these plagues cast constant and sinister shadows over the lives of our forefathers. Read if you will Pepys's description of the 1665 plague of London, or Defoe's narrative but faithful portrayal of the ravages of this fearful epidemic—an epidemic that killed one in every four of London's inhabitants, that soured the milk of human kindness and blotted charity from out of the hearts of men, loosed the bonds of friendship and of filial love, and converted men into haunted beasts, fearful of all about them, seeking only to escape the invisible, impalpable enemy that stalked through the countryside.

Or, coming nearer home, read Dr Benjamin Rush's description of the 1793 yellow fever epidemic in Philadelphia, an epidemic that killed one out of every ten inhabitants, and that through the fear and panic it engendered, made men belie the boast of their fair city—Philadelphia, the City of Brotherly Love.

The literature and the recorded history of mankind contains many a vivid portrayal of the ravages of the plagues that were rampant in the days previous to the development of modern medicine. Reading these, and contrasting the experiences of our forefathers with our own, we can secure some idea of how far we have progressed.

Smallpox, typhoid, cholera, yellow fever, malaria, bubonic plague, typhus—these were once major causes of disease and death. Today, at least in civilized communities, they are of secondary importance, if not merely clinical curiosities. Add to these the diseases which, if not eradicated, have at least been substantially reduced, diseases like tuberculosis, diphtheria, the diarrheal diseases of children and the like, and we begin to approximate the measure

of greatness in health achievement witnessed in the period previous to 1910

But having contrasted the old with the new, having reviewed the roll of the diseases conquered—seeing further how life has been prolonged from an expectancy at birth of forty years, in the time of our great grandfathers, to a life expectancy of fifty-nine years for our children, having considered all this, it is but proper that we should ask how did this come about? What were the forces that made for this progress?

Progress of any kind is usually the resultant of many forces and, among these, some must be outstanding. The outstanding forces responsible for our great health progress may be named under three divisions—individual genius, enlightened government, and advancing economic conditions.

How can one account for the conquest of smallpox without taking into consideration the contributions of individual genius? Smallpox is a disease as old as mankind itself and for centuries continued its ravages unabated and unchecked. Then, but a while ago, an English country-town practitioner, somewhat bored by the duties of his everyday practice, literally stumbled across an observation which brought to the surface the genius within him and, gave us the first great immunologic instrument: the weapon with which to conquer smallpox. How great an achievement this was may be judged by the enthusiasm with which the world received *vaccinia*.

No less a rôle did individual genius play in the conquest of yellow fever. Less widespread, but more destructive than smallpox, yellow fever slaughtered thousands upon thousands of victims. I have already mentioned the great Philadelphia epidemic of 1793 in which one out of every ten inhabitants died. Between 1702 and 1800 yellow fever raised its destructive hydra head in the United States no less than thirty-five times. And from 1800 to 1873 yellow

fever appeared somewhere in the United States every year. You know how the Panama Canal construction attempted by the French was rendered fruitless by yellow fever. And you know how this same disease hampered the work of the United States engineers, until Reed and Gorgas solved the riddle of yellow fever. Here, again, it was individual genius, involving now not one but several individuals, that won for mankind victory over one of its great enemies.

Numerous were the contributions which individual genius made to our great health progress, but individual genius alone would hardly have sufficed to bring us so far on the path of public-health progress had not enlightened government applied, for the welfare of the community, the scientific facts discovered by the genius of individuals. One pointed, though negative illustration of this, is the story of Semmelweis, the great Hungarian physician, who even before our poet scientist, Holmes, discovered the infectious character of the cause of childbed fever. It was Semmelweis who observed that childbed fever, "all too often" terminating in the death of the delivered mother, was most common where the physician was "most unwashed." He urged common cleanliness and sanitation on the part of the physician attending the woman in labor. But in spite of the fact that his observations were correct and that his advice was fundamentally sound, he was too far ahead of his time, and neither the government nor his colleagues were enlightened enough to benefit by his observations. Poor Semmelweis was jeered at for his trouble, until the bitter injustice he suffered upset his mind.

After Jenner's great discovery was demonstrated beyond all shadow of doubt, practically every civilized country in the world made vaccination compulsory. The results were phenomenal. Smallpox was robbed of its terror. Individual genius and enlightened government combined to make living safer. Now there remains for consideration the

third great force, that of advancing economic conditions. In discussing this item, I am usually tempted to draw my illustrations from certain phases of the history of New York City.

New York City can now boast of an excellent water supply and a fairly good sewage system. Coming to New York you may drink water with a sense of safety, having no fear of typhoid. But this wasn't always so. In the days of the backyard outhouse and the backyard well, typhoid was common in the City. Its elimination was promoted by the later-day developed sewer system and our great water systems. But these were brought into being more in response to the economic needs of our community than because of the demands of public health. Whatever the motives may have been the ever advancing economic conditions have made their substantial contribution to the furthering of public health. And thus we see, how the operation of the three main forces, individual genius, enlightened government, and advancing economic conditions have brought us to that stage of high public-health development prevailing today.

So much for our progress in the past, and now, what of tomorrow and what of the day after? Are we to continue making the same progress as we have made in the past and will this program be due to the operation of the older forces, or must we develop new ones?

In the realm of economic science, there is a law known as the law of diminishing returns. This law seems to operate as well in the realm of public-health endeavor as in that of economics. For we see how in many a field our investment in effort, with the passing of time, brings ever smaller and smaller returns. Consider, for example, our tuberculosis movement and note how our rate of progress has declined of late, and almost in inverse ratio to the efforts we invest in the movement.

The law of diminishing returns certainly seems to affect the operation of the three forces we have enumerated be-

fore. Great as has been the progress made in the past, we may not hope for as much in the future unless new forces be brought into operation. And this must be readily evident. Not all of the outstanding diseases are amenable to control by the genius of individuals, by enlightened government, or by advancing economic conditions. There is available a vaccine that will immunize against smallpox, but because of this may we also hope for a vaccine that will immunize against bad mental hygiene. There are laws operating to compel the pasteurization of milk, but may we ever hope to spread among the people the good sense needed to drink milk by placing laws upon our statute books?

Even where individual genius and enlightened government have made their contributions, because there is oft lacking a something else, certain diseases remain unconquered. Allow me to illustrate my meaning by a consideration of diphtheria. You know that we have both a positive cure and a positive safeguard against this disease and, yet, every year in my community and I believe in yours, too, there are scores and scores of children needless victims of diphtheria. Why? Individual genius has done its part in discovering the cure, antitoxin, and the preventive, toxin-antitoxin. Enlightened government has contributed its share towards the war against diphtheria. And yet, the final battle has not been won. Why? The answer in part is as follows:

The great public-health progress of the past has been made without the active coöperation, oftentimes without the sympathy, without the understanding, and even against the opposition of the average man and woman in the community. Our citizens have been the passive recipients of the benefits of public health, in the promotion of which they have had no share and played no rôle. What had the average man in the street to do with the elimination of typhoid or with the control of malaria? Far too often, the average man's appreciation of public health is confined to the be-

grudging conformity with laws that are to him little more than a nuisance and the significance of which he does not understand. But, if we are to continue making progress in public health, this condition must be altered. Our citizens must be made to join the army of public health, they must serve as soldiers in the war against disease and not be, as so many are, slackers in ignorant league with death and disease.

But to enlist our citizens in the army of public health they first need health education. It is to health education then that we must look to for new momentum in our public-health progress. It is health education that will be the driving force of the public-health movement of the future. And that this is no vain prophecy may be seen from the following: Consider, if you will, certain of the present-day health problems. Consider, for example, the problem of mental hygiene or the problem of social hygiene or the problem of the so-called degenerative diseases. Is there any hope that these problems may ever be solved save through the education of the individual? Certain it is that we can hope for no serum, vaccine, pill, or powder that will endow a man with good mental habits and safeguard him against bad mental hygiene. All the laws of all the statute books since time immemorial have as yet failed to eliminate or solve the social-hygiene problem. And I know of no medication that has proved effective in keeping the go-getting American from wearing himself out prematurely. On the other hand, health education seems to hold out some promise in the solution of these problems.

Consider further this phase in the matter. The public-health movement of the past concerned itself primarily with the conquest of disease and the prolongation of life. The modern public-health movement has learned to appreciate that life has more than one dimension, that a long life is desirable, but a healthy as well as a long life is preferable.

The modern public-health movement has set itself the task not only of eliminating disease and of prolonging life, but also of improving the qualities of existence, and here health education plays its prominent rôle. For much of good health depends upon the intelligent utilization of our body resources—an intelligence which each individual must possess and which he can acquire only through health education.

In the past public health has done things for the individual; now, to frame it tersely, the individual must be taught to do things for himself. He must be health educated.

And now there is but one more point that I would like to consider, and that is the part the practising physician is to play in the promotion of health education. It is a regrettable but historically correct fact that the public-health movement in the United States, and for that matter throughout the world, came into being, developed, and flourished without the aid and often despite the opposition of organized medicine.

At first blush this is a shocking realization and yet one easily explained. The profession of medicine is an individualist profession, and its practitioners by heritage, training and tradition look with suspicion if not hostility on all mass movements. Time there was when this attitude was justifiable, but as relates to the public-health movement, that time is long past. Organized medicine and the private practitioner now have it incumbent upon them to join the public-health movement and to do their proper share of the work. This they must do—or they will be left behind.

And to my mind there is no phase of the public-health movement where the physician can function as well as in promoting health education. He has the necessary technical knowledge and exceptional opportunities. All he needs is a little training in pedagogy, and the willingness to pitch in.

THE COST OF PAROCHIAL EDUCATION IN CHICAGO

ROBERT E. O'BRIEN

I

A comparison of the cost of elementary education in the Chicago public schools and Roman Catholic parochial schools reveals the fact that public education costs \$106.30 more per pupil annually than parochial education. Table I shows the annual per pupil costs of public and parochial schools separated into the following items: operation, instruction, fixed charges, and maintenance. The parochial schools in 1926-1927 paid for operation \$3.60 per pupil, on the other hand the public schools spent \$8.50, a difference of \$4.90. One reason for this economy is that the larger heating systems of the public schools require a licensed engineer, while the steam- or vapor-heating plants of the parochial schools can be operated by relatively inexperienced help. Besides the parochial-school janitors are not unionized and consequently are not paid the union scale, nor are subject to union hours and working restrictions. Frequently the same man and his family care for the school, the convent, the church, and the parsonage.

Instruction in the parochial schools cost \$6.18 per pupil, compared to \$64.10 in the public schools, a difference of \$57.92. The small cost paid for teaching in the Catholic schools is made possible by the teaching communities or orders of the Roman Catholic Church. The sisters or nuns, as they are sometimes called, devote their lives to teaching in the schools of the Church as a religious duty. Parishes are required to furnish them a suitable residence with heat, light, and water. The salary paid each teacher by the parish is \$35 per month. Out of this sum the teachers board themselves and continue their education. On the other hand,

elementary-public school teachers of Chicago receive a minimum salary of \$1,500 per year, which is increased \$125 each year until a maximum of \$2,500 is reached.

Fixed charges and maintenance cover such items as interest on the investment, depreciation, insurance, repairs, and special assessments. These are listed under one head in the parochial-school costs, but the Board of Education of Chicago lists only one item, *maintenance*, covering repairs, insurance, and special assessments. The per pupil cost of maintenance in the public schools is reported as \$4.10. Depreciation and interest on the investment in cost of building were obtained from the per pupil cost of public-school buildings.¹ According to this method, the fixed charges for the year 1926 were \$56.25 for each pupil enrolled in the elementary grades. The cost of fixed charges and maintenance in the public schools exceeds that of the parochial schools by \$43.48 per pupil.

TABLE I
RELATIVE COST PER PUPIL OF THE PUBLIC AND ROMAN
CATHOLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF CHICAGO
FOR 1926-1927*

Items	Public Schools	Parochial Schools
Cost of operation.	\$8.50	\$3.60
Cost of instruction.	64.10	6.18
Cost of maintenance.	4.10	
Fixed charges	56.25	16.87*
Total costs	\$132.95	\$26.65

*Fixed charges and maintenance are included in one item in the parochial-school survey.

Catholic parochial schools are able to secure supervision gratis since this function is exercised by the parish priests, members of the Archdiocesan School Board, Diocesan offi-

¹ Report of Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Illinois, 1926, page 61.
² Costs of public education in Chicago are taken from Report of Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, page 102. Because of unpleasant criticism no information was issued the year following the trial of Superintendent William McAndrew. This information is for the year 1926. Costs of parochial education are taken from R. E. O'Brien, *Survey of Roman Catholic Elementary Schools*, 1928, page 208.

cials, and representatives of the Mother House whose members constitute the teaching staff of the local school. All supervision done by clerical members of the Archdiocesan School Board, by Diocesan officials, and priests is in addition to their regular duties as parish priests. Every clergyman who is associated with the schools serves as a pastor or assistant in some parish of the city where he receives his support. His supervisory work is in addition to his other clerical duties. Lay members of the Archdiocesan School Board donate their services. The Mother House through its income from members of the order and from its endowment pays for its own supervision.

The relative cost of public and parochial education can best be seen in an estimate of the additional financial burden which the taxpayers of Chicago would have to assume if the Catholic elementary schools were suddenly closed and the pupils placed in the public schools. The total enrollment of the Roman Catholic elementary schools in September, 1926, was 136,510 pupils. Should these children have entered the public schools in a body, the present public-school buildings would have been inadequate. New buildings would have to be erected to care for the entire influx, since the public schools were then suffering from a serious shortage of rooms.³ According to the estimate of the Board of Education of Chicago⁴ the lowest cost for these additional school buildings would have been \$127,978,125.

The cost of salaries for additional teachers and supervisors would have been \$8,750,291. The total cost of public-elementary education in Chicago would have been increased by the sum of \$18,149,004.50 if the public schools had been obliged to assume the education of the 136,510 parochial school pupils during 1926-1927. The Roman Catholic Church, however, spent only \$3,638,480 for the education of these same children. In other words it costs

³ Report of Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, III, 1926, page 85

⁴ *Ibid.*, page 61

the Catholic Church about one fifth as much as it costs the city of Chicago to educate a child in the elementary grades.

The problem of raising the \$3,638,480 which it costs to maintain the elementary parochial schools per year rests squarely on the Roman Catholic Church. No public funds may be used in Illinois to support or assist private or church schools. The sources from which income is derived are (1) endowments, (2) diocesan support, (3) sale of articles, (4) tuition, and (5) contributions of the parishioners.

Endowments play a very limited part in the income of the elementary parochial schools,¹ although invested funds belonging to the teaching communities indirectly benefit the schools. By means of these endowments the Mother House is enabled to train and support new members during their novitiate and to care for the ill and aged sisters. The Mother House also bears the expense of supervisors who visit the school at regular intervals to see that the superiors and teachers maintain the school according to the educational standards of the society.

Diocesan support is given only in cases where the need is great and where parishes are too poor to pay the expenses of a school. This assistance seldom takes the form of gifts for operating expenses; it is usually limited to donations to assist in the construction of new buildings. Aid is sometimes given poor schools by transferring used equipment to them from vacant or partially vacant parochial schools. Any support that the Diocesan officials give comes from the voluntary contributions of the Catholics of the diocese.

All of the Catholic elementary schools of Chicago sold school supplies, candy, chewing gum, and small articles used in worship such as candles (Table II). The superiors of each school usually had charge of these sales. When business was so great that it interfered with the other duties

¹ Letter from J. J. Conner, chancellor

of the superior, a teacher was entrusted with the responsibility. Income from these sales was usually applied to the needs of the convent, thus supplementing the income of the teachers. Sometimes the profits were used to purchase maps, charts, and library books. It was evident that much attention was paid to this business for during interviews both teachers and superiors would stop to display their wares and make a sale. Except in a few schools no record of the income is kept and no reports are made.

TABLE II
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS SELLING VARIOUS ARTICLES

Number of Schools	Articles Sold
214.	School supplies
214.	Candles
178.	Religious cards and pictures
169.	Candy, chewing gum, etc.
152.	Milk
24	Toys, replicas, etc.

Collections were taken at the schools for various causes. The most frequent was a weekly offering taken in 163 schools for the purchase of chalk and other incidentals. It was argued that these collections of a few cents per week from each child had pedagogical worth since it made the child understand that its education was valuable because it cost something. It is probable that the collections did not originate in this theory, but in the practical necessity of procuring money to purchase the supplies. No figures were reported on the sums thus collected for few schools kept a record of these items.

The exact income derived from tuition cannot be stated as few schools kept accurate records. Tuition varies in different parishes; some schools are free, others charge each pupil from \$1.00 to \$3 00 per month. In most schools children who cannot afford to pay the regular tuition are allowed to earn their way by working about the building. Ten out of 214 schools varied the tuition according to the ability of the parents to pay.

TABLE III
THE NUMBER OF SCHOOLS CHARGING TUITION AND THE
TUITION CHARGED, 1926-1927

Number of Schools	Amount Charged Per Month
1.....	\$3.00
181.....	1.00
14.....	.75
3.....	.50
2.....	.35
10.....	0 to 1.00
3.....	No tuition

The needs of the local parish appear to govern the rate of tuition and the strictness with which it is enforced. The three free schools are located near the business sections of Chicago in parishes where the members have moved away. Here the tuition was removed in an effort to attract children to the schools. It is difficult for most Catholic schools to compete with the public schools. As a rule the public schools have larger and more attractive buildings, better equipment and playgrounds superior to those of the parochial schools. In addition children in public schools are furnished school books and school supplies free of charge, whereas in the parochial schools they are obliged to purchase their supplies and textbooks and to contribute weekly to the purchase of such articles as chalk. When the expense of tuition is added to the other costs of parochial education there is a tendency for parents to send their children to public schools for economic reasons.

One teacher who had 167 eliminations to the public schools in September, 1927, attributed them all to the expense of parochial education. She said, "When the parents came for the transfer I pled with them to leave their children with us. I told them what it meant to the children, to them, to the Church, and to Saint C——, but they just shrugged their shoulders and said, 'He's been confirmed. Now he can go to the public school. Parochial school costs too much.'" When parishes are able to do so there

is a tendency to reduce the tuition to attract pupils. This is seldom possible because the members of the parish are usually unable to assume the entire support of the school.

Sometimes tuition is rigidly enforced in an effort to prevent children from poor and uncleanly families from attending school. The superior of a school for colored children asserted that by strict enforcement of the \$1.00 per month tuition she was able to limit the enrollment to the better classes of colored people. In one parish several families whose children had been ordered from the school for failure to pay their tuition were visited. They resented their treatment, declaring that they knew of other families whose children were allowed to attend, although they were months behind in their tuition. The pastor defended his action by calling attention to the fact that should children from the "never-do-well" families attend his school, children from the better families would drop out. One of the stock arguments in favor of the parochial school used by many priests was that the children in it did not have to sit next to "negroes, foreigners, and dirty, lousy children."

While no figures are available showing the amount received from tuition, a careful estimate arrived at by multiplying the rate of tuition in each school by the pupils enrolled, shows an income from this source of \$1,317,874. Since the total expense of the elementary schools of the Catholic Church in Chicago is \$3,638,480, the income derived from tuition was \$2,320,606 less than the total costs of the system. This annual deficit is one of the most serious problems which the Roman Catholic Church faces in Chicago. Attempts to solve the difficulty by raising the tuition will further reduce the efficiency of the schools by limiting the enrollment to smaller numbers. Thus far the most practicable solution for meeting this annual deficit is by means of freewill offerings from the members. By this means practically all of the \$2,320,606 is raised each year

Where the local parish was unable to meet its deficit aid was sometimes secured from the diocese. But in these cases the deficit was really met by freewill contributions, the stronger parishes assisting the weaker by assuming part of the financial burden. The income from endowments, from the sale of articles, and from collections taken weekly from the children are so small as to be negligible. It is, therefore, correct to assume that the Roman Catholic Church in Chicago raised approximately 36 per cent of the expense of its elementary schools by tuition and 64 per cent by freewill offerings taken up in each parish.

(To be continued in a later number)

UNITED STATES HISTORY CONTRIBUTIONS TO PROJECTS IN HEALTH EDUCATION¹

MARY MORIARTY

American history as it will be written years hence will not be the history as we know it today. This does not mean that it will be written from a purely economic standpoint; that it will deal mainly with Eli Whitney, McCormick, Adams Express Company, and the sewing machine, and will refer briefly to the Battle of Gettysburg in a footnote. Surely, however, there will be a readjustment of viewpoint, and American history will contain more useful material and give due recognition to some of our great achievements and contributions other than those purely political and constitutional.

In examining the most recent texts in this field one might reasonably expect to discover evidences of a changing viewpoint in American history other than that held at the beginning of this century. Some recognition of health relationships might be revealed. In a study of these texts, however, little of such valuable and available material as would contribute to more efficient living today has been utilized. This paper, therefore, deals mainly with suggestions as to the possible contributions of American history to health education. No attempt has been made to consider the almost unlimited wealth of material found in the backgrounds of our history.

Of fourteen most recent texts studied, no text was found which gave the reason for the spices of the East being so eagerly sought by the peoples of Europe. Refrigeration, as we know it today, was not practised; the various methods by which food was preserved by ancient peoples might be investigated and compared with those of the

¹Edited by Ira M. Gast.

present day, including how refrigeration by ice or low temperature came into use.

Period of Exploration. During the period of exploration death by sickness from lack of adaptation to new and strange conditions and from many communicable diseases took an immense toll. Had De Soto lived in 1928 what health knowledge might have aided him and his followers? Our histories usually reveal little more than that De Soto died and was secretly buried at midnight in the muddy waters of the Mississippi.

What health knowledge will Mr. Ford's representatives take with them into the jungles of South America? Against what diseases might the early explorers have been immunized? How might Ponce de Leon have discovered a real fountain of youth?

Period of Colonization. The period of colonization is characterized by hardships, poor living conditions, severe winters, insufficient clothing and shelter, disease, and death. Why not study the advantages of Jamestown as a place for people to live at that time, its climate and elevation?

When the Pilgrims first landed at Plymouth Rock, they had no cows or goats with them. These were imported later from Holland to supply one cow and two goats to every six people.² It would be interesting to learn how cow's milk was discovered as a food and how we learned to milk the cow. In what respects were the Quakers better equipped for health than the settlers of Plymouth?³ How is milk procured in the Panama Canal Zone where it is difficult to herd cows? In which of the colonies—Jamestown, Plymouth, Salem, Providence, or Pennsylvania would you have preferred to live? Why?

Indian Life. Indians ate game, fish, wild berries, fruits, and edible roots. Some of the tribes cultivated patches of

²Turner and Collins, *Community Health*, p. 51, 1928

³Burnham, *The Making of Our Country*, p. 37, 1925

corn, beans, and squashes. They possessed no domestic animals except the dog. What important food was absent from their diet? Discuss the home life of the Indian child—its advantages and disadvantages; an Indian boy's lessons; the lessons of an Indian girl; occupations of men and women; and Hiawatha's childhood.

Growth of Industries On colonial farms, which grains, vegetables, fruits, and plants were native and which were imported? All our common farm animals except the turkey were unknown to the western continent until the coming of the white man. Projects growing out of the study of this period might include farm machinery in colonial days, colonial crops, and a colonial child's clothing.

The lack of money made it difficult to enter upon commercial pursuits. The settlers would trade a coat for a pair of shoes, or a cow for a horse. The children might prepare and present a play in which a New England mother prevails upon the father not to trade the cow for a horse; the children of the family entering their appeals in favor of keeping the cow, and giving their reasons.

Salem Witchcraft In connection with Salem witchcraft more modern superstitions might be studied, such as (1) that certain diseases run in families; (2) that children must have measles, chickenpox, mumps, etc., and the sooner they get them "over with" the better; (3) that defective eyes grow weaker when glasses are worn; (4) that styes and warts may be "charmed away"; (5) that children outgrow physical defects; (6) that thirteen at a table is unlucky; and (7) that windows should be kept closed at night to keep out the "night air."

Homes of Early Settlers At first many of the colonists took refuge in caves dug in the river bank or in wigwams like those of the Indian. The first log cabins should be studied with reference to sleeping quarters, the trundle

bed, where the older children slept, and how these cabins were heated and lighted.

A Colonial School. Some of these schools had dirt floors which readily became very dusty. Some unruly pupils would purposely stir up clouds of dust to annoy the master and disturb the school. Such a school should be contrasted with our modern school buildings.

French and Indian War. In this connection may be described with their health implications the boyhood, home, early training, and out-of-door life of George Washington. But all the battles for social progress have not been fought by "blood and steel." General Wolfe was handicapped by poor health, but resolutely made the most of his life and abilities. On the dark waters of the St. Lawrence while his soldiers rowed with muffled oars the night preceding the battle of Quebec, Wolfe recited Gray's *Elegy*. He said that he would rather have written the elegy than take Quebec.

Territorial Changes. The names of Daniel Boone, Kit Carson, and James Robertson, in the settlement of the Ohio Valley, are dear to the heart of childhood. Colonial life is sharply contrasted with that of the present because of its dangers and hardships. Today we have comforts of modern living, overheated homes, inadequate exercise, too little time spent in the open air, and too many delicacies.

The Revolutionary Period The ideals of citizenship, self-sacrifice, self-reliance, and rugged health made possible tremendous achievement which would have been quite impossible with our habits, practices, and living conditions of today.

The Young Republic. The usual modern school history does not refer to health habits and practices at the dawn of our nation. Textbook authors seem not to consider such problems important in the study of national affairs. The

untimely death of Washington was due to his having been bled by his physician as a remedy for a severe cold. Similar practices are revealed in a study of the Lewis and Clark expedition, 1804-1806.

The earlier inventions and changed practices were closely related to health and living conditions. Among these are (1) Crompton's spinning mule (1779); (2) Watt's steam engine (1781); (3) smelting furnaces (1790); (4) Whitney's cotton gin (1793); (5) Fulton's Folly (1807); (6) the use of coal for fuel (1812); and (7) the opening of the Erie Canal (1817). What were the health hazards of the old and of the newer forms of industry? What are the hazards of today?

Discovery of Gold in California. Our westward expansion, the migration of the Mormons, and the discovery of gold in California were all attended with tremendous human sacrifice. Gordy⁴ states that four thousand died from cholera during the first year after the discovery of gold; and many more from lack of suitable food. In some cases men were obliged to kill their mules for food; sometimes they lived on rattlesnakes. In their frantic desire to reach the diggings people would not always stop to bury their dead.

A little girl making the journey, wrote in her diary, "I have learned to eat and drink many strange things. Don't you think I shall do for a new country?" Would a child who refuses to eat wholesome food, who selects food according to likes or dislikes be likely to survive in a new country?

Period of the Civil War. The boyhood and early training of Lincoln and other leaders during this period contributed much to the success of our nation. Many health hazards confronted both whites and slaves. Their living

⁴Gordy, *Elementary History of the United States*, p. 237

quarters were often very comfortable; others were entirely inadequate. Slaves were necessarily fed at the smallest possible expense, mainly on corn meal and pork. The weekly allowance of food on one Virginia plantation was one and one-half pounds of corn meal, three pounds of bacon and a little salt per individual. A Mississippi planter gave each slave a peck of meal, three pounds of pork, and one quart of molasses. Had you been a Southern planter owning a hundred slaves, what diet would you have selected for them in order that they might do a greater amount of work?

During the Civil War the exposure and hardships of army life resulted in much sickness and many deaths. The prisoners of both the North and South suffered great privation. Many of them perished. The wounded were cared for as well as possible but the surgeons of that time had not yet learned the use of antiseptics. The Confederate hospitals were especially in need of medicines and other supplies. Two northern societies, the Sanitary Commission and the Christian Commission aided in caring for the sick and wounded. What agencies in our time would aid in such emergencies?

Among suggested projects may be mentioned life of the soldier during the Civil War as compared with that in the World War. Burnham states that the American Army with a daily average of 742,000 men assembled in many camps, had but 119 cases of typhoid in a period of five months. After inoculation there were but ten cases in four months among nearly a million men.

The advantages to health and prosperity resulting from the Civil War would, especially in the South, include (1) smaller and more prosperous farms; (2) more diversified crops; (3) more domestic animals; and (4) new developments in farm machinery.

Development of the Nation. Among the great achievements and developments tending to improve living conditions we may mention the following:

First municipal water supply, New York City	1831
Invention of the reaper	1840
Invention of the telegraph.....	1844
Anæsthesia first used	1846
Massachusetts Sanitary Commission	1850
Massachusetts State Board of Health.	1869
American Public Health Association.....	1872
Telephone projected	1876
Trudeau Tuberculosis Sanitarium established... ..	1884
First wireless message sent across the English Channel .	1899
First sanitary water supply.... ..	1904
Pasteurization of milk began.....	1907
Wrapping of bread began.....	1914

Spanish American War. With the outbreak of the war with Spain, the United States was confronted with many serious health problems. The war in itself was not significant, but it provided opportunities for tremendous achievement by the United States. Through our occupation of Cuba we were compelled to study the sources and treatment of yellow fever. These lessons were applied in the Panama Canal Zone and made possible the canal itself. Had it not been for our war with Spain the Panama Canal would not have been completed until a much later date. Yet our histories usually refer only to military operations as if these were the important achievements of this nation

The World War Through each of these critical periods tremendous achievements were made possible for the betterment of mankind. The emphasis upon health education today has been promoted by the discoveries and lessons derived from the drafting of men for the World War. We had made great strides in medicine, surgery, and sanitation which rendered possible the saving of vast numbers of people. Political and constitutional history may be studied as found necessary; but the economic features of our history should no longer be ignored.

Our child labor and immigration laws should be studied from the standpoint of human welfare. Humanity is benefited by our emphasis upon the physical fitness of the immigrant. The development of the automobile has presented many problems of human relationship. It has changed the structure of society throughout this country and abroad. Its significance should receive due emphasis.

Traditional history has mentioned only the great military and political leaders. Why not include the following:

Florence Nightingale, England's founder of the first training school for nurses.

Clara Barton, the founder of the American Red Cross.

Louis Pasteur, the discoverer of disease germs.

Joseph Lister, the father of modern surgery.

General William E. Gorgas, the sanitary engineer of the Panama Canal Zone.

Dr. Walter Reed, who helped to discover the origin and transmission of yellow fever.

Dr. Lazear, who sacrificed his life for the cause of health in Cuba.

Dr. Edward L. Trudeau, who developed methods of treatment of tuberculosis

Thomas A. Edison, for his contributions to comfort and health.

Henry Ford, as a great industrial organizer.

Charles A. Lindbergh, for bringing the people of the world closer together and promoting an attitude of fellowship.

CURRICULUM BUILDING AND THE NEW SOCIAL SCIENCES

GUY V. PRICE

Coöperation has been emphasized as a new watchword and countersign in industrial and international affairs. In education, a depressing fact has been the lack of cooperation. Of textbooks written by university specialists for *some indiscriminate assortment of students and readers* we have had quite enough. On one side it has been felt that the primary element was thorough knowledge of the subject taught, but in practice it has been found that the materials must be tested in the light of the learning capacities and experiences of the children themselves. The old fallacy of emphasis on method independent of knowledge has yielded to the conviction that the teacher and the specialist must be brought into closer understanding.

The movement for curriculum revision, which has now become acute in many cities, may be said to have entered its scientific phase when Professor Franklin Bobbitt began, about a decade ago, to give courses on the curriculum in the University of Chicago. Curriculum construction is an accepted part of school administration in most progressive cities. The movement has affected the elementary, junior, and senior high schools. Colleges and universities have taken up the problem. No phase of education has escaped. The two main reasons for this revision are the dynamic character of American civilization and the developing social sciences, including education as one of the social sciences. The schools and some other institutions of social control are trying to secure that place of leadership in the community which thoughtful people think they deserve. The essays by Professor W. H. Kilpatrick on "Education for a Changing Civilization" secured some attention from professional educators, not conversant with the concepts

of social science, to the necessity of adjusting education to changes which are rapidly occurring in American life. It is now realized that a study of American life is preliminary to a validation of the work of the schools, and that we cannot determine what kind of schools we want until we can envisage the direction of social evolution. The necessity for more accurate knowledge of contemporary civilization was repeatedly stressed in the joint statement of the Committee on the National Society for the Study of Education on "Foundations of Curriculum Making" and also by supplementary statements of individual members of the committee. Of these statements the following are illustrative.

In establishing the relative importance of proposed materials of instruction . . . the curriculum-maker is compelled to decide what use he shall make of the present needs, interests, and activities of children on one hand and also of the results accruing from the scientific study of society on the other. . . .

To validate any experience for any particular time, both the child interest and social value in the control of behavior should be used as tests. . . .

Learning takes place most effectively and economically in the matrix of a situation which grips the learner, which is to him vital—worth while. . . .

In curriculum making attention should be given to the interests, needs, and activities of child life and of adult society The curriculum-maker must become a student both of the child and of society and the accumulating experience of the race

Because other agencies—such as the typical American home, the press, the church, the platform—cannot exert an adequate educational influence for social improvement, it is imperative that the systematic curriculum of our schools shall consider definitely the problems, economic, political, social, and individual It is of increasing moment that our educational agencies be organized for the task of bringing children to a progressive understanding of their responsibility for social progress and of the problems, practices, and institutions of social life¹

To furnish educative materials for such a conception of education is both a challenge and an opportunity for the

¹"Foundations of Curriculum Making," Part II, *Twenty-sixth Year Book of National Society for the Study of Education*.

teachers and workers in the social sciences. For years teachers of history have contended that one value of history was to give a better understanding of the present. They are now challenged to demonstrate the merits of their claims. While the social studies have existed in some form since the days of the Greeks, the relative immaturity of these studies as science requires that in many cases the teacher must emphasize scientific procedure rather than rely on the suggested laws of the sciences. Science is one of the great passions of our age and rightly interpreted it becomes a solvent for some social problems. Right now it is perhaps better to emphasize knowledge than reform. Facts, as Lord Bryce said, are the great need of democracies. Knowledge may not guarantee right conduct, but it is a preliminary condition of social conduct in a complex world. Only understanding transforms. A problem loses its baffling nature the moment it is understood. Life in the modern world, as Alfred North Whitehead has said, cannot be disjoined from intellectual adventure.

Does modern social science afford the sort of intellectual adventure and understanding that will furnish us with a guide to sane social behavior? The answer to that question demands a good deal of familiarity with the sciences themselves. The social sciences embrace history, political science, economics, sociology, anthropology and their interrelations.² Others would add the related fields of social psychology, ethics, cultural geography, and some phases of biology. A few books which afford an introduction to the leading concepts of social science would include Hayes, *Recent Developments of the Social Sciences*; Ogburn and Goldenweiser, *The Social Sciences and Their Interrelations*; Sorokin, *Contemporary Sociological Theories*; Ellwood, *Cultural Evolution*, Schlesinger-Fox, *A History of American Life*; Merriam, *New Aspects of the Study of Politics*;

²This list given by Ogburn and Goldenweiser, *The Social Sciences*, 1927

Dawson, *Teaching the Social Studies*; Smith, *North America*, Barnes, *History and Prospects of the Social Sciences*; Bossard, *Problems of Social Well-Being*; Judd, *Psychology of Social Institutions*; Beard, *The Rise of American Civilization*; Cheney, *Law in History and Other Essays*; Smith, *The Democratic Way of Life*; Dewey, *The Public and Its Problems*; MacIver, *The State*; Chapin, *Cultural Change*, and many other books and articles. The materials are at hand for an investigation of the applicability of newer concepts of social science to curriculum construction. The courses of study exist in great proliferation so that they may be tested for the inclusion of principles of these sciences.

Science seems to alternate between specialization and synthesis. Problems are means of unifying the sciences. A real live problem, crime for instance, cuts across the formal boundaries. "The problem of poverty, for example, is related to biology because of a possible hereditary factor. It also falls into the domain of psychology, for many cases of destitution are neurotic. Economics contributes to the solution, for the distribution of wealth is a factor in poverty. Sociology is related to the problem through population, migration, birth control, city housing, pensions, and public health."⁴

One idea seems to run throughout the whole range of social study and that is the concept of change and development. Professor Cheyney gives it as one of the laws of history and the July issue of the *American Journal of Sociology* (1928), is devoted entirely to a survey of the social changes in America during 1927. Change is the law of life of our civilization. "Modern material culture has completely altered practically every phase of human life. No other transition in the history of humanity can be compared to the multifarious effects of the scientific and industrial revolution which has taken place since 1750. It is

⁴Ogburn and Goldenweiser, p. 8

still going on in a more striking and ominous degree than at any time in the last two centuries."⁴ Inventions were relatively infrequent prior to the eighteenth century. Lord Francis Bacon could think of three in the years preceding the seventeenth century, printing, gunpowder, and the compass, which he thought had done more to revolutionize life than all other influences. Now we have become so accustomed to the occurrence of epoch-making discoveries and inventions that only the most striking secure attention. Inventions and discoveries are undoubtedly a great factor in making our civilization dynamic and because of the improved state of technology the increase of inventions is inevitable.

This enormous change in material culture has raised the question of whether in the nonmaterial phases of life a corresponding increase has been made. Thus Dr. John Bassett Moore, a philosophical jurist of international fame, commenting on the radio said, "The development and accumulation of scientific discoveries, and of inventions that quicken locomotion and the dissemination of sound, bear no intrinsic relation to the progress of mankind in spiritual things, and that, so far as they minister to mistaken assumptions of moral or intellectual superiority, their effect may even be harmful." This is no doubt a very widespread conviction. It has given currency to the conception of "cultural lag," but it is rather the problem of social advance—that of bringing the institutions of control into adjustment with the new conditions—which the inventions and discoveries have necessitated.

A very important result of the Industrial Revolution and associated changes has been the increased range of knowledge possessed by the average citizen, due to the rise of free public education, of the expansion of collegiate education, and the growth of the press. Up until the middle of the nineteenth century the mass of citizens, except

⁴H. E. Barnes, *History and Social Intelligence*, p. 572

in such communities as Athens or Rome, the overwhelming number of citizens were illiterate. The information they possessed related to the ordinary processes of life, the superstitions and traditions of the locality. The growth of culture makes necessary a similar growth in education. It is not commonly appreciated how abstract are the facts of modern life. As a rule the facts or events of contemporary life do not take place in such a form that they can be known. They must be given shape by somebody, usually the press agent. How to make the newspaper serve more effectively the requirements of social intelligence is a primary problem.⁵ If democracy is to succeed under the new conditions it will be because of greater social understanding. Those who accept the Turnerian conception of American history, the influence of free lands and the frontier, are inclined to doubt the possibility of democracy under urban industrial concentration. The only hope of making democracy effective is through education broadly conceived. The steady expansion of educational opportunity in America is the best proof that our people still have faith in democracy. The usual approach to the question of how much education is needed ignores the social problem. The question of how much arithmetic is needed cannot be answered by the needs of the market place, but by a study of the need for quantitative thinking about social relations. The census reports on population, figures on the extent of American investments abroad, the expenses of the Federal Government are not appreciated because of so little training in quantitative thinking. Increasingly, however, welfare depends on the sanity of men living in social groups, whether in apartments, corporations, churches, political parties, or national states. No doubt if teachers could realize as Dr. C. H. Judd has emphasized, that the subjects in the curriculum grew out of the necessities of social existence they would appear less abstract.⁶ There is no subject

⁵G. V. Price, "Newspaper as an Aid in Social Analysis," *Education*, May, 1928

⁶Judd, *The Psychology of Social Institutions*, New York, 1926

but that it should be taught historically in the light of social development. We speak scornfully of mere words but through them nearly the whole process of communication takes place. An old grammar defines a word as a sign of an idea and may be oral or written, but students memorized that without having a sign of an idea. Language is a bearer of social experience and words have come down through long ages freighted with meaning. The abstract nature of arithmetic would be modified if teachers would study it historically.

Social psychology has contributions to make to the curriculum. It is realized that satisfactory social training is one of the greatest needs of the times. Charles Horton Cooley, the patron saint of the social psychologists, has emphasized the place of the primary groups, the home, the face-to-face contacts, as bearers of social value and experience. In these primary groups the individual builds up the habits of coöperation; they furnish the social patterns. Social life is essentially mental. Communication, sympathy, and discussion are the fundamental forms of association. Consequently, "the educational sociologist conceives the school as a coordinating agency in the development of controls of behavior. . . . Educational sociology is the application of the sociological method and technique to the problems of collective behavior which cluster about the school—the analysis of the social situation from which the child comes to school and to which he must adjust. . . . It is not limited to a consideration of objectives, but includes a consideration of subject matter and activities of the school."⁷

The concept of culture has been developed by Dr. Clark Wissler and Dr. C. A. Ellwood, among other writers. Culture includes the whole social environment of speech, material traits, art, science, war, family and social systems,

⁷E. George Payne, "Educational Sociology" Publications of the American Sociological Society, XXI, 1927.

property, government, religious and ethical codes. It varies widely and is under the law of evolutionary change. Cultural changes are affecting the family and the position of women. The question of which is more important in the life of the individual, the social and physical environment, or the hereditary mental endowment of the individual, has been approached from a variety of angles. Both are significant. The contributors to the Twenty-eighth Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education dealt with "Nature" and "Nurture" and "Their Influence Upon Achievement and Upon Intelligence." Professor F. N. Freeman found that "The chief difficulty which has been encountered in investigations has been that of isolating environment from inherited capacity. . . . When differences in environment and differences in heredity are associated it is impossible to determine which is the cause and which is the effect.⁸ His studies do show clearly, however, that environment does have an influence on intelligence and conduct. Apparently, the contributors were unwilling to resolve their difficulties in the manner suggested by L. L. Bernard, of making heredity a subhead under environment. In the long run environment alters heredity. The biological traits of the American people, for instance, have been affected by our immigration policy. As conceived by Bernard, environment is a much wider term than heredity and includes (1) *the physical environments*, the soil, climate, and natural resources, (2) *the biologic or organic environment*, the microorganisms, parasites, the larger plants and animals; (3) *the social environment*, which he divides as *physicosocial*, such as tools, transportation, scientific appliances, the *biosocial*, embracing the family, neighborhood groups, and the *psychosocial* based on the individuals who carry culture, collective behavior, tradition, folkways, uniformities of custom and language. The fourth division of environments is made up of *composite* or

⁸ *Twenty-eighth Year Book*, Part I, p. 105

derivative features centering in control, such as government.⁹

With this perspective any book on society which limited reform to eugenics would be unrepresentative of the teachings of the majority of social scientists. The concept of culture is yet to be worked out adequately in world history textbooks. The usual book on world history gives a chronicle of separate national states but does not indicate the interdependence, contact and contamination of cultures. But most social scientists would doubtless concur in the statement that "Intellectual development is not the product of one race, still less of one society alone. It is a tradition handed on with successive improvements from one civilization to another, and that is why it shows a nearly continuous advance."¹⁰

The progress of American history interests a great number of people because "every individual interest of future citizens and every vital interest of . . . social life demands something better in the way of teaching history than boys and girls . . . are now getting."¹¹ In the last twenty years American historiography has witnessed increasing attention to the "New History"; a more general acceptance that American history in many respects cannot be isolated from world history; a constant multiplying of monographs dealing with various phases of the social, political, and cultural development of the American people; and by a continued effort to paint a synthetic picture of American life. The four volumes which have so far appeared, of the contemplated set of twelve volumes on the *History of American Life*, edited by Schlesinger and Fox, are packed with information. Local history plays a considerable rôle, but not from the angle of the curious or antiquarian interest. Party strife is subordinated. Fundamental matters, such as the broadening of the suffrage, the democratizing of po-

⁹Ogburn and Goldenwelder, *The Social Sciences*, pp. 353-355

¹⁰L. T. Hobhouse, *Morals in Evolution*, p. 42

¹¹M. E. Haggerty, "Educational Achievement" *Rural School Survey of New York State*, p. 180

litical control, humanitarian reforms, ways of living, and the broadening of culture, receive due attention. Twenty years ago the appearance of the *American Nation* series marked the climax of broad-minded constitutional and political history. Since that time the *Chronicles of America*, *The Pageant of America*, and the *History of American life*, together with many good texts and monographs, have given to the curriculum maker substantive material for re-making the history courses in the schools. Political influences, such as typified by the Thompson régime in Chicago, still embarrass educators, but the publication of so much new material makes almost inevitable some improvement and enrichment. Materials are at hand for a reconstruction of the European, world and modern history courses. The six volumes of the *Cambridge Ancient History* summarizes research in that field. The story of Athens as revealed in these writings culminates in one of the most awful cultural crashes in history, of a high civilization going over the embankment because politicians at the wheel enjoyed skidding. Rostovtzeff in his new but already widely quoted volume on *Rome*, attacks again the causes of Roman decadence, the social and intellectual conditions, the atmosphere of crime and guilt surrounding the Roman emperors, the indifference to intellectual achievement, and the lack of courage to face the problems of the day. Preserved Smith, in *The Age of the Reformation*, gives in many respects a devastating account of the progress of the Reformation but concludes that it was distinctly a forward movement. Abbott's *Expansion of Europe* has doubtless inspired many teachers to consider as more important the conditions which admitted America to world civilization.

Political science, as a science, is in a hesitant mood, apparently divided between the adherents of the newer views championed by Professor Charles E. Merriam, who has advocated the studying of psychology, economics, statistics, sociology, and even anthropology, and those who

still restrict themselves to more formal governmental matters. The lines of development of the science as sketched by Merriam have been:

- 1 The *a priori* and deductive method down to about 1850.
- 2 The historical and comparative method, 1850-1900
3. The present tendency towards observation, survey, and measurement—1900
- 4 The beginnings of the psychological movement in politics.¹²

The Modern State, by R. M. MacIver, may be selected as typical of the newer emphasis on the functional aspects of the state and the recognition of the newer ideas of social value. He gives the state a preeminent position among other organs of control because "It creates rights, not as the lordly dispenser of gifts, but as the agent of society for the relation of rights. The servant is not greater than his master. As other rights are relative to function and are recognized as limited by it, so, too, the rights of the State should be." He comes back finally to the individual, and the function of the state is the fulfillment of personality. His writings like those of many contemporary English writers centers the effort on reconciling individual freedom with needs of society.¹³

As a contributor to political philosophy and as a practical leader none have been more significant than Woodrow Wilson. In his "New Freedom," he stated the conditions which the new democracy would have to meet. "Yesterday," he said, "and ever since history began, men were related to one another as individuals . . . Today, the everyday relationships are largely with great impersonal concerns, with organizations, not with other individuals. Now this is nothing short of a new social age, a new age of human relationships, a new stage setting for the drama of life." Earlier associations were, as Cooley said, of the face-to-face type. The new conditions create greater problems for government and the effort of practical leaders as

¹²Charles E. Merriam, article on Politics, in Hayes, *Recent Development of the Social Sciences*, 1927

¹³Lewis Rockow, *Contemporary Political Thought in England*, p. 210

well as political scientists is absorbed in finding new means of meeting the problems which have been thrust upon government.

The range of economic concepts and analyses has greatly broadened. Among them, business cycle, industrial fluctuations, welfare, taxation canons, production, the rôle of money, insurance, risk, speculation, economic incentives, wastes in industry, social control, the acquisitive society, tariffs and dumping, trade, radicalism and conservatism, thrift, savings, investments, profits, value, distribution, credit institutions, *laissez-faire*, economic laws, supply and demand, are familiar. It has been thought that economics was too abstract a science to be taught below the senior year of the high school, and some would leave it until the second year of college, but there are certain phases of economic life which can be introduced into the elementary grades, among them are thrift, taxes, trade, and industrial growth.

But Professor W. H. Burton found that teachers frequently assume too much knowledge on the part of students. The Oklahoma City course of study, vocational civics for the seventh grade, suggests that students acquire an understanding of such terms as vocational guidance, vocational adjustments, collective bargaining, division of labor and occupation. Professor Burton found that 55 per cent of certain classes of sixth-grade children answered correctly, what is "blind alley job," but on an interview nearly everyone was found to be ignorant of any real knowledge of the term. Vocational education was defined by some as a form of music, deriving it from vocal music.¹⁴ Considerations of this sort require that emphasis be placed on general facts of the main industries, agriculture, manufacturing, machine trades, building trades, transportation, commercial occupations, civil service, engineering profes-

¹⁴W. H. Burton, an unpublished doctor's dissertation, *Nature and Amount of Civic Information Possessed by Chicago Children*, University of Chicago, 1924, p. 73.

sions, home making, rather than that of vocational guidance and decision.

The St. Louis, Missouri, course of study, social science, like that of Oklahoma, Denver, and many other cities, illustrates the amount of effort and research requisite in overhauling a course of study. The usual studies of the curriculum committees are first, to read the books on educational objectives and methods of curriculum construction, then read some of the textbooks in the field, and if there is time, approach the original works of contributors in the subject matter fields. This last stage is rarely ever reached. The St. Louis committee states that the aim of the social sciences in the first six grades is "the teaching of concepts or principles derived from geography, history, civics, or relationships between human activities and earth conditions." This apparently indicates a recognition of the rôle of environment stressed by Bernard. The more general objectives for the social studies accepted by the committee were to enable the student to participate effectively in promoting the welfare of society, to have a sense of world community, of one's relations as a member of a social group, of the relation of the past to the present, and the ability to properly interpret social conditions.

The Denver course of study, social science, senior high school, was worked out along the lines of history syllabi and appears to be an exceptionally good piece of work. History forms the backbone of the course and there is no admission of sociology and economics as such. *American Problems* is the place where social and economic matters are considered. In preparing the list the committee obviously had in mind the selection of problems on the basis of comparative importance rather than unity in the series. Likewise the Oklahoma course for grade IX, a set of problems includes Latin-America and a study of vocations. The State of Missouri course of study for junior and senior high schools (1928), has a long list of problems for the

course in problems of American democracy. The problems are social, civic, and economic. The Missouri list follows: Education in American Democracy, The Problem of the Family, Immigration, Negro, Crime, Poverty and Dependence, Religion, The Farm Problem, City Problem, Unemployment, Conservation of Resources, Trusts and Large Scale Production, Transportation, Communication and World Commerce, Exchange and Banking, Distribution of Wealth, Public Opinion and the Press, Organization of the Federal Government, Work of the State Government, International Relations and World Peace. Truly a formidable list. The list will be tested out in many of the smaller high schools of the State, but both reason and experience seem to confirm the opinion of Professor R. M. Tryon who maintains that while we need citizens who understand these problems it is better to select a group as economic and concentrate on them. Political understanding will be developed by training in political science, and if we wish people to be able to think sociologically, train them for a consecutive period in sociology.¹⁵

The appropriateness of conceiving the social studies as a set of problems is still in doubt. Some insist that the studies should, if possible, be approached from the angle of principles or laws. But if the problem method is to be used it seems preferable to concentrate attention on a group of problems, in a given field. Problems of a distinctly sociological character would include the unstable family, child welfare, poverty, the control of disease, growth of population, race, and immigration, crime, mental hygiene, and problems of peace. The unity of the human career, however, must never be ignored.

Some study of the new curricula leads to the reflection that the committees on revision, in some cases, are perhaps too ambitious and make the courses too detailed. Each new committee, building to some extent on the work of previous

¹⁵"History and Other Social Studies in Junior and Senior High Schools," *Historical Outlook*, May, 1926. A different point of view has been advocated by Professor Harold Rugg.

ones, adds a few more details or makes the list of objectives more specific. Activities form a fruitful field of development which may yield a new approach to education¹⁸ In this new array of materials social vision is needed. It is believed that the new social science furnishes at least some of the vision needed. With the sweeping vision of social science one may envisage the development of society, coming more within the scope of organizing intelligence, and, thereby, more and more removed from blind chance and the sport of demagogues. The further growth of social self-consciousness and of social control will be gradual and probably attended with many setbacks, but it is surely the function of teachers to make social intelligence more effective. As it increases its area of operation it will be more difficult for the pronouncement of politicians and half-educated industrialists to pass for the last word in statesmanship.

Even an elementary survey of the present school situation reveals a renaissance of interest in the place that the social studies shall occupy in the curriculum. It is a challenge to teachers of social science, to school administrators, and the general public. The American faith in education runs deep and has as its distinguishing trait, equality of opportunity. To validate that faith should be an aspiration of all who utilize the newer social science for the new curricula.

¹⁸Adolphe Ferrière, *The Activity School*, New York, 1928, translated by Moore and Wootton.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

EDITORIAL NOTE: *It is designed to make this department a clearing house (1) for information about current research projects of interest to educational sociology and (2) for ideas with reference to research methods and techniques in this field.*

Readers are urged to report their own projects and to submit information regarding other projects of which they have knowledge. Suggestions as to methods of research will be welcomed and will be given publicity in this department. Specimen questionnaires and plans for research in educational sociology will be given careful criticism if desired.

From time to time this department will also make its readers acquainted with research resources in educational sociology. Contributions of this type from readers will also be welcomed.

It is desirable to make the program of research in educational sociology a cooperative one. To this end the names and addresses of those engaged upon research projects will usually be given in order that readers may exchange with them ideas upon related projects.

NEW REPORTS OF RESEARCH IN PROGRESS

We are interested to note that Professor J. M. Gillette, president of the American Sociological Society for 1928, has announced that the *American Journal of Sociology* is to introduce this year a new department on Reports of Research in Progress.

STUDY OF CONDUCT HABITS OF BOY SCOUTS

About a year and a half ago, the National Council of the Boy Scouts of America decided that the time had come to check up definitely on their own activities to determine to what extent the Scout Movement is attaining its major objective of developing socially useful character traits in the boys who come under its influence. It was unanimously agreed that such a study must be thoroughly scientific, objective, and unbiased. This meant that the study itself must be completely detached from any Scout influence. In accordance with this principle, Professor Henry P. Fair-

child, of New York University, was requested to take the direction and full responsibility of the study. Funds were secured to provide for the employment of a competent staff and for necessary expenses. All the executives of the Scout Organization were authorized to cooperate fully with the agents of the study in the way of supplying information and other services as desired, but no participation in the study itself by such executives was contemplated.

In accordance with this plan, about ten communities, distributed over the country, have been selected at random as samples of Scout activity. In each of these communities a twofold plan of inquiry is being carried out.

1. A purely statistical study is being made based on the Juvenile Court Records to determine the relative frequency of delinquency among Scouts and non-Scouts;

2. A personal study is being made of about one hundred boys in each community, divided into four groups, approximately twenty-five in each, as follows:

- a. Scouts with a delinquency record
- b. Non-Scouts with a delinquency record
- c. Scouts without a delinquency record
- d. Non-Scouts without a delinquency record.

In the compilation of the data thus secured, a uniform schedule is being used which will serve as a basis for the final tabulations and statistical comparisons. The final conclusions as to the influence of the Scout factor on character development will be based partly upon the showing of these schedules and partly upon the intimate knowledge of the boys' characters acquired by the workers in the course of their studies. Every effort is being made to provide for the necessary allowances on account of any difference in the hereditary or environmental situations which may be discovered to exist between Scouts and non-Scouts.

The workers have been mainly recruited from the graduate schools of strategically located universities with the

courteous coöperation of teachers in those Universities. In addition to the director, there is one full-time experienced social worker on the staff and one or two professional workers giving full time for limited periods.

Since the purpose of the study is to furnish data to the Scout organization itself which will serve as a basis for either the reinforcement of present methods and policies, or the adoption of promising modifications, it has not, as yet, been definitely decided whether the report or any portions of it, will be printed. The spirit of the enterprise guarantees that any partial report that may be printed will be strictly representative of the whole.

A RESEARCH BULLETIN IN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

The department of commercial education of the New York University School of Education proposes to issue a series of bulletins in which significant research studies in commercial education that are being made at New York University will be reported. The idea of a research bulletin was developed as a result of a need felt among students, commercial teachers, supervisors, and administrators of sharing their mutual efforts for the further improvement of commercial education through research studies.

The bulletins will be issued quarterly under the editorship of Dr. Herbert Tonne. Forty-six studies already under way in the field of commercial education will be reported. The purposes of the bulletin are as follows: (1) to present the conclusions of researches that prove valuable to commercial teachers, supervisors, and administrators, and (2) to give examples of various types of research studies to aid and encourage further research.

PHI DELTA KAPPA AND RESEARCH

Phi Delta Kappa is a national professional fraternity in the field of education, with a membership of more than

10,000. In addition to the professional and fraternal aspects, it is also honorary in character. Three ideals motivate the activities of the organization and its membership; namely, research, service, and leadership. The fraternity has thirty-seven active chapters and fourteen alumni chapters distributed throughout the United States. The active chapters are in the leading colleges and universities of graduate rank which maintain schools, colleges, or departments of education of exceptionally high standing. The biennial National Council of the fraternity is the legislative and policy-making body. The administration of the affairs of the organization is in the hands of an executive secretary and under the direction of an executive committee of five members.

The official national organ of Phi Delta Kappa is the *Phi Delta Kappan*,¹ a bimonthly magazine, which has been published since 1915. Since one of the fundamental purposes of the fraternity is research, the magazine gives a large amount of space to reports of research in education, much of which is of interest to sociologists. It publishes articles from time to time on the methods of research, presents accounts of completed research projects, and prints lists of books, theses, and other research undertakings of its members.

BOOK REVIEWS

Extra-Classroom Activities, by RIVERDA A. JORDAN.
Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1928, ix + 302 pages.

This is a good straightforward book about the conventional activities in which boys and girls of elementary and high schools have engaged with varying degrees of success and faculty encouragement for the past half century. After three introductory chapters dealing with "basic principles," classification, and direction and control, there follow brief treatments of entertainments and dramatics, school assembly, school publications, student government organizations, music, societies, and clubs, social organizations, athletics, military drills, and related activities. The book closes with chapters on school finances and extent of participation—guidance, a rather random selection of references, and an appendix, containing several elaborate school constitutions.

The book deals with school problems which face the faculty and administrators of many elementary and secondary schools today as they did the officers of the schools which the reviewer attended from 1888 to 1902. The advice and suggestions given by Dr. Jordan are safe and reasonable; following them will get no young principal into trouble. Teachers and administrators of experience already know most of what this book contains.

If the author is challenged or thrilled by the modern school's efforts to capitalize and universalize student participations in the dynamic social life of the school, he gives little evidence of it in this book. He seems to have little appreciation of the possibilities for executive, æsthetic, athletic, and social expressions which students activities may provide for pupils who are unsuccessful in academic subjects. His emphasis seems always to be on the direction and control, rather than on the positive, enthusiastic, cooperative undertakings in which teachers and pupils are partners and in which selfishness is sublimated in the group's welfare.

Professor Jordan has given us good common sense advice regarding aspects of pupil activities in schools of yesterday. Unfortunately he seems not yet to see the opportunities and problems of the schools of tomorrow.

PHILIP W. L. COX

The Child and the World, by MARGARET NAUMBERG.
New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1928.
xxiv + 328 pages.

This book is a new and stimulating presentation of the progressive tendencies in education. It depicts the work of the Walden School of which the author is founder and now advisory director, and is a cumu-

lative argument for the adoption of the concepts on which this school is founded. The book is very much worth reading, and one who approaches it with an open mind will receive many valuable suggestions from it, however strongly he may react against certain portions of it.

The form of the presentation is the dialogue in which those who are associated with the experimental school meet and converse with various types of school men, teachers, and students, as well as physician and artist. Questions and objections relative to the principles and methods of progressive education are answered. The dialogue form is unsatisfactory and makes the reading of the book somewhat arduous.

The basic psychological principles are generally sound in the sense that the emphasis is placed upon creative activity of the pupils, with the teacher taking her place in the background as a guide, and the school subjects introduced only incidentally. The psychological method which is favored is psychoanalysis, although the author criticizes this school for being too greatly concerned with the abnormal adult, rather than the normal child; with cure rather than prevention. Pupils, teachers, and even parents are psychoanalyzed, and adjustments made in the light of results. Dewey's principle of freedom is carried to a logical application, but in view of the fact that "the individual is more important than society," Dewey's insistence upon the adaptation of the individual to society is regarded as defective.

Many of the sociological principles may be questioned. The author finds justification for this type of education in the social needs of the day. She would stimulate a revolt against the powerful tide of industrialism which is responsible for "the monotonous uniformity of our average American" and the threatened "extinction of individuality," and would favor the development of European or even Oriental types of culture. The lack of initiative is not proved, nor does the author consider the possibility and desirability of America's developing its own type of culture on the basis of essential and inevitable commercial and industrial activities. There is a wholesome emphasis upon character building and "spiritual" values.

Not only does the author make a sweeping arraignment of the social order and the public-school system, in both of which the curse of inertia rules, so that all energy is spent on maintaining old traditions and none is left for creative work, but she sees no hope for the future except in the true experimental school of the present. There appears to be no recognition of the remarkable advances that are being made in public-school programs. That there is much of value in the experimental school of this type is evident; that there are many public schools which evidence as truly a progressive spirit and method as the experimental school is also evident.

A number of exaggerations of statement warn the reader to be cautious. Any one who is acquainted with the facts refuses to believe that the Lincoln School and the Horace Mann School now merely serve the purpose of developing methods and curricula for use in forwarding the

old type of education. In view of the remarkably progressive work of Bird T. Baldwin, Arnold Gesell, and many others, one can hardly accept the statement that none of the universities is interested in making a fundamental study of how children live and grow.

The book would have been more useful if it had dealt in a very concrete way with organization, curriculum, and methods of instruction, with much illustrative material. This is done in the fourteenth dialogue which shows the process of building a play, and this proves very constructive and highly suggestive. What is needed is a clear statement showing how the principles of progressive education may be applied in ordinary public-school conditions. The presentation here given is of little significance to this end.

PAUL V. WEST

Commercial Teaching Problems, by PAUL S. LOMAX. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1928, v + 200 pages.

Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association—First Year Book, Foundations of Commercial Education. New York: Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association, 1928, v + 423 pages.

Bibliographies on Educational Sociology, First Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology, 1928, 154 pages.

One of the important signs of educational progress is the amount of literature and activity among groups in the special fields of education. This activity is of rather recent origin. Signs of life are appearing in physical education, music education, art education, and commercial education. Probably the greatest activity is now being witnessed in commercial education. This is not strange because the largest percentage of any group of secondary teachers belongs to the commercial group. They have had to rely very largely for their training upon the work of commercial schools. This is being corrected by departments of commercial education in the schools of education in the various universities and the literature appearing in the field.

Among the books which will attract wide attention among commercial teachers is that by Professor Lomax dealing with commercial-teaching problems. The book is something more than a discussion of commercial-teaching problems for it deals with the foundation of commercial education as well as the problems of teaching. This book ought to have wide use among all students of the problems.

The second book, also in this field, is the first yearbook of the Eastern Commercial Teachers Association with contributions from leading educators and economists. The first contribution to this series represents

a valuable body of literature in the field. This contribution will not only be a stimulus to the further development of the experimental basis for commercial education procedure but to the development of a body of principles basic to the whole problem of commercial education.

The third publication listed is the first yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology, which is a bibliography of literature relating to the field of educational sociology and includes a wide list of books, some of which have little bearing upon the field. Although this is the first yearbook it represents the second contribution of the society.

The first was "Sociology in Normal Schools, Teachers Colleges and Universities," a survey prepared by Mr. Lee and published for the St. Louis meeting of the Section on Educational Sociology of the parent body. The bibliography fulfills a cooperative need in the development of an experimental approach to the newly developing science. It will undoubtedly have a wide influence in the future development of the study.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

The Psychology of Personality, by ENGLISH BAGBY. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1928, viii + 236 pages.

The Lure of Superiority, by WATLAND F. VAUGHAN. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1928, ix + 307 pages.

The Psychology of Abnormal People, by JOHN J. B. MORGAN. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1928, ix + 627 pages.

Why We Misbehave, by SAMUEL D. SCHMALHOUSEN. New York: The Macaulay Company, 1928, 313 pages.

About Ourselves, by H. A. OVERSTREET. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1928, 300 pages.

The past decade has witnessed a flood of literature on the unadjusted personality. The psychoanalysts not only gave the impetus to this literature with their then sensational insistence on the rôle of sex maladjustments, but in their emphasis on the psychogenetic origin of the neuroses swung our attention from physiological causations to the individual's behavior in attempting to adjust to group life. Recently more orthodox psychologists have been attempting to restate this point of view in a more sober fashion. Conflict is the central concept of these restatements—an emotional conflict that always reflects a social conflict as the

individual seeks status and recognition in group life, as his impulses run athwart the group's definitions or cultural patterns, or as he lives in two or more groups that give conflicting definitions of the same situations and behavior. Physical discrepancies are significant, not so much in themselves, as in the way in which they condition the individual's group participation and status, the attitudes others take towards him and his conception of himself. Personality maladjustments are not so much biological as social.

The Psychology of Personality ("an analysis of common emotional disorders") starts from the concept of physiological tensions or emotional disturbances. These tensions arise out of unsuccessful social adjustments. In his undirected attempts to resolve these tensions, the individual develops faulty behavior mechanisms—fear, compulsions, inferiority feelings, absurd rationalizations, day-dreaming, hysterical symptoms—which become fixed as personality traits. The analysis is illustrated with considerable clinical material and followed by an interesting discussion of principles of treatment illustrated from the writer's case books.

The Lure of Superiority is a literary presentation of the Adlerian point of view. Out of the infant's actual inferiority grows a drive towards recognition, a will to power. Intelligent approval socializes this drive, helps the individual to organize his impulses and ability, to consolidate his personality. Lack of social approval and repression lead to disabling conflicts, inferiority feelings, inhibitions. The book is not without its interesting and suggestive passages, but the author relies on anecdotes from the fields of art, literature, industry, religion, feminism, and racial traits rather than upon objective and clinical materials to bolster his generalizations.

The Psychology of Abnormal People is organized in orthodox fashion—disorders of sensation, of perception, of association, of memory, of the emotions, of motor coordination, abnormalities of intelligence, personality, sleep and dreams, hysteria, disorders of regression, compensatory disorders, episodic disorders, and mental hygiene. It attempts to tie up behavior disorders with the established facts about brain, sensory organs, and nervous system. But it also regards these same behavior disorders as "errors" of adjustment—wrong, futile, inadequate attempts to meet difficult life situations. The author's scholarship is sound, his point of view well considered, his treatment fresh and interesting. The volume is one of the best in the literature of abnormal psychology.

Why We Misbehave is a jazzed piece of propaganda, written by a disciple of Freud, for an objective, rational attitude towards the problems of sexual adjustment—the whole disguised as a scientific inquiry. The style, from title to postscript, is of the Dorsey school. But the disciple lacks the scholarship and reasoning ability of the master. The book is largely a set of glittering generalities that lead nowhere in particular.

The author displays an enormous knowledge of the titles of books, a superficial knowledge of their contents. His really quite interesting experiments with a "psychosexual inventory" (an adaptation of the Mathews psychoneurotic inventory idea) among university students is completely befuddled by his interpretation of it. The inventory will, however, provide amusing evenings for the so-called intelligentsia who are too high-hat for crossword puzzles or pencil bridge. All in all it is a sorry book—and yet here and there it brilliantly suggests how so-called "abnormal" sex patterns arise out of faulty attempts at social adjustment.

About Ourselves is a frankly popular and literary presentation for the man in the street of the problems of personality adjustment. Part I, "Toward Unreality," deals with unsuccessful adjustments—we build up fictions, we trip in our logic, the ego inflates, we fly into disease, some of us have moods when fears beset. Part II, "Toward Reality," deals with successful adjustments—ears that hear, eyes that see, tongues that talk, getting rid of poisons, he who laughs, the intercreating mind. Containing nothing new, the book is a readable popularization of psychology, one of the better of the attempts to effect a *liaison* between science and common sense.

Principles of Sociology, by RUDOLPH M. BINDER. New York: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1928, xvi + 609 pages.

Dr. Binder has been professor of sociology at New York University for several years, and is the author of several earlier volumes in the general field of sociology. Among these volumes are *Major Social Problems*, *Health and Social Progress*, and *Religion as Man's Completion*.

The reader found *Principles of Sociology* written in a pleasing, engrossing, lucid style. One does not labor through the chapters. The entire presentation is integrated in a scholarly manner through constant reference to the three major theses of the volume. These theses are: (1) the individual is unique, (2) the unique individual seeks completion, and (3) such completion is socially determined and therefore possible only through constructive social participation.

The text is arranged in thirty chapters, grouped into the following: Part I—Social Population, Part II—Social Motives, Part III—Social Processes, Part IV—Social Institutions, and Part V—Social Aims. Throughout the entire discussion, the author shows himself not only a scholar in his field, but a clear thinker as well. The aim is to be practical use and common sense in the treatment. The teleic challenge is constantly thrown out. The approach to each topic is inductive, and the chapters close with terse statements of general laws or principles evolved in the presentation.

Professor Binder has written an excellent book, not only for class use, but for perusal by the layman struggling towards completion.

JOHN R. PATTERSON

Social Work and the Training of Social Workers, by
SYDNOR H. WALKER. University of North Carolina
Press, 1928, 241 pages.

Occasionally an outsider is able to secure a perspective on work done which is most illuminating to those actually engaged in the work. The relation of an undertaking to other fields of activity, and an evaluation of the claims of those engaged in the processes may well be more easily accomplished by the intelligent observer than by the practitioner himself. In this book, Miss Walker seems to have accomplished such a task for social work. Disclaiming any assumption of professional status herself, she has modestly suggested that as a lay person she may be able to interpret social work to the nonprofessional group. Her extremely readable efforts should be perused by the social worker himself as her interpretation of what he is doing and her comments on his techniques, his objectives and his claims for recognition will prove most enlightening. The practitioner, according to Miss Walker, in his attempts to analyze the objectives of social work finds himself uncertain as to whether his practice accords with his objectives. He is unable to impress the public with belief in his objectives, and as a result usually faces a lack of financial support which is shown in the salary schedule of social workers as compared with teachers. Miss Walker points out that there is great need for real coordination of social work. Such examples of councils of social agencies as exist are frequently fortuitous in their origin. Few, if any, social workers see the entire field. She stresses the fact that the assembling and supplying of data on community resources may well be as important a function of social work as the case work process which in America has precedence at present. Universities, she finds as a rule, lack confidence in the professional training of social workers. The social sciences and social work which began independently are gradually finding themselves in adjacent territory. The social scientist still feels that little of practical social work is based upon scientific data, and is surprised at the prophecy that social work may well become an asset to social science. The direct observation of social phenomena by the social worker, may give an additional impulse to the social scientist and at any rate he can hardly be indifferent to "seeing his work bear fruit, his observations becoming the basis of new activities."

Perhaps the most valuable part of the book is the discussion of training schools for social work with which Miss Walker is probably more familiar than anyone else in the country. She has personally visited almost every school engaged in training social workers, studied their curricula, and conferred with the instructors. As a general treatise on social work the volume can well be recommended to the uninitiated and as a critical discussion of the calling, the social worker will find Miss Walker's book most stimulating.

CLARENCE G. DITTMER

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Mrs Edith B. Joynes, a teacher in Manry High School, Norfolk, Virginia, is president of the Department of Classroom Teachers in the National Education Association. Miss Joynes has been active in professional organization work in her home city and State and has been in demand to give addresses at meetings of associations in other states. The Board of Education at Norfolk has given Mrs Joynes leave of absence to do field work in the interest of the department of which she is president and the National Education Association. She will leave on her first trip some time in October and will hold conferences in the following States. Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, District of Columbia, Georgia, New Mexico, North Carolina, South Carolina, Oklahoma, Tennessee, and Texas.

Dr. Albert S. Hurst, dean of Teachers' College, Syracuse University for eight years, has presented his resignation to become effective at the end of the present scholastic year. He will resume his former post of professor of history and education in college.

President Ezra Squier Tipple of Drew University has presented his resignation to take effect upon the election of his successor. While resigning from the presidency, he stated that he had no thought of severing his connections with the university.

Dr. Frederick W. Lewis, president of the College of Emporia, Kansas, has been elected vice president of the New York Biblical Seminary.

Dr. Payson Smith, Commissioner of Education, Massachusetts, has been mentioned for United States Commissioner of Education. He is one of the best-equipped men in the country for the position in point of academic training, professional experience, and administrative capacity. He has held his present position since 1917.

Professor E. A. Kirkpatrick retires this year after thirty years of service in the State Normal School at Fitchburg, Massachusetts. He is now revising his well-known work on child study and will continue to pursue his interest in the ethical aspects of sociology.

Dr. Harvey R. Douglass of the University of Oregon is spending two years' leave of absence as visiting lecturer on secondary education at the University of Pennsylvania.

Dr. Harvey N. Davis was installed president of Stevens Institute of Technology, Hoboken, New Jersey, November 23. President Lowell of Harvard delivered the principal address at the inauguration.

Dr. Charles A. Richmond has resigned as president of Union College, a position he has held for twenty years, giving as the reason for resignation his age of seventy-six years. He will become president emeritus.

Dr. J. M. Kieran, who has, since 1904, been a member of the faculty of Hunter College, was made its president at a recent meeting of the

board of trustees. Dr. Kieran received degrees from City College, St. Francis Xavier, and Fordham University

A timely program for high-school commencement—Current interest in the Kellogg Treaties and the promotion of World Peace Makers the subject of peace the appropriate keynote of a high-school commencement program. A list of Peace material suitable for graduation exercises is being prepared by the education committee of the Pennsylvania branch of the Women's International League.

The material will include music, Scripture reading, poems, and subjects for essays and speeches. The list will be ready for distribution immediately after Christmas, and can be obtained by application to the Women's International League, 1525 Locust Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

New Education Degree at Stanford.—The Board of Trustees of Stanford University has recently approved a plan, submitted by the faculty of the School of Education, for the establishment of a three-year graduate program of study leading to the professional degree of doctor of Education (Ed.D.). The new degree is to be primarily a professional degree, analogous to J.D., M.D., D.D., and similar to the degree of doctor of education recently established at the University of California and at Harvard.

According to Dean Ellwood P. Cubberley, of the School of Education faculty, three main reasons for the new degree were influential in its establishment. First was the desire to create a professional degree of equal weight and difficulty with the present Ph.D. degree, but with the emphasis on professional preparation and mastery of educational materials rather than on research, second was the desire to provide a master-teacher type of degree to prepare a better teacher in subject-matter fields for the rising junior colleges; and third was the desire to create a new university degree that would relieve all departments of the university from the pressure of those older candidates for the Ph.D. degree who are not primarily interested in research, but who are good teachers in colleges and normal schools and who seek the degree due to pressure from the institutions with which they are connected, rather than from any deep interest in the advancement of knowledge through research

The new degree is to be of two types, one is designed primarily to prepare for school administration and the teaching of education in universities, colleges, and normal schools; the other is designed primarily to prepare a new type of teacher in subject-matter fields for the junior colleges and for small colleges generally

The time requirement for the two types of the doctor of education degree is the same, viz., a minimum of three years of study beyond the A.B. degree

Each type of the degree will call for the completion of the requirements for a State teacher's certificate, including major and minor teach-

ing subjects, and at least two years of successful experience as a teacher, one of which must have been subsequent to taking the A B. degree. For the master-teacher type of degree the equivalent of one year of advanced study in education will be waived, and the candidate will be expected to devote this time to advanced work in a teaching minor, such as history, mathematics or chemistry, and with a view to perfecting himself in the subject-matter field as well as in educational theory and practice.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

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Dr Iago Galdston, who as a trained physician became more interested in the teaching and public aspect of the medical service, at present maintains the following educational relationship: lecturer on educational sociology in the School of Education, New York University; lecturer on Public Health at the New York Homeopathic Medical College and Flower Hospital, special lecturer on health education at the New York Training School for Teachers; professor of social and public health, Fordham University, Fellow of the American Public Health Association.

The Reverend Robert O'Brien is a graduate of Northwestern University. The materials presented in this series of articles are the results of his investigation for his doctorate in Northwestern University.

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FORTHCOMING ARTICLES

- Reading Musical Programs Intelligently, by Henry Harap.
- Sociology Applied in Curriculum Making, by George A. Retan.
- How Many Colleges? by Stephen G. Rich.
- Handedness, by Ira M. Gast.
- The Jews. Race or Conglomerate, by Stephen G. Rich.
- The Socially Efficient Community, by David Snedden.
- Our 396 Major Social Problems and Issues and the Schools, by
A. O. Bowden.
- Social Life of the Child of Junior-High-School Age, by Harvey
D. Douglass.
- Need for Public Education in Advertisement Response, by Paul
Maxwell.

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EDITORIAL

The editors of THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY are sensitive to the comment of educators or scientists as to the merits of THE JOURNAL. We are therefore pleased to quote from a reviewer in the *Vierteljahrschrift fuer Wissenschaftliche*, Dr. L. H. Ad. Geck, published at Munster, Germany. He says:

"The full impression given by the present issue is, on the one hand, that educational sociology begins also with some ancient truths—with which everybody, so to speak, agrees but to which only transient consideration is given—and that a long neglected field is at last beginning to be attacked scientifically, on the other hand, the impression prevails that educational sociology in the United States has not yet completely overcome its initial troubles. Thus this magazine is faced with a great task. It may remind us Germans of the fact that the continued emphasis on the necessity of a socialized life, which gradually has evolved into senseless talk, does not get us any nearer to our goal, and that an objective experimentation based on educational sociology is a very urgent need of the day. This fact also faces us in German science. When will the Prussian government . . .

give consideration to the necessity of educational sociological investigation?"

It might be said in this connection that we expect to include later in the columns of this JOURNAL a summary of educational sociological literature from our German correspondent.

OUR 396 MAJOR SOCIAL PROBLEMS AND ISSUES AND THE SCHOOLS

A. O. BOWDEN

Social problems are in one way or another the burden of nearly every public speaker of note who has the welfare of the common people at heart. We have such types of speakers or popular magazine writers as the eternal optimist, the withering and consuming attitude of the confirmed pessimist. We also have the leading lights of the ministry, the half-baked and otherwise baked or burnt political spellbinder, the cynical lawyer, or the matter-of-fact medicine man. The school-teaching profession comes in for its part in the general round-up of weakness. Blatant hopefuls from the ranks of our ministers and school-teachers come in for a full amount of their own criticism of society and its problems. Some are buoyant in their hope-inspiring writing and speaking, others are depressing. But all are satiated with one slant or another of the total or partial social situation. These and many from all sides assert that we have social problems but usually leave it at this assertion. We have many social problems. But, specifically, what are these social problems? They exist, but just what are they? From one angle they are the local or the national or general, from another they are ephemeral or eternal. Nearly every reformer feels that he has the solution of our social problems and just as many of these reformers fall into the particularistic fallacy of trying to assign some one particular cause for disturbances in society and try equally as hard to show that the millennium may be realized by some magical turn of the formula which they have worked out in their imagination.

There can be no question that most of the social problems which are enumerated below will require for their solution the close cooperation of all school agencies. The

home, the school, the church, the trades and professions, the law-making bodies, etc. Perhaps the schools can act best as the coordinating factor in all nonschool agencies in this great undertaking.

Since the schools should and do represent in a brief way the extent of all phases of our culture and civilization, they can and do influence indirectly everything. The schools through their teachers are the only institution or force that touches the whole of society. This is the reason that organized schools are basic to our civilization and are so important. They influence every phase of life, the professions, trades, business, industry, and act as a leaven in society itself. Through the children, and this is the direct influence the schools can exercise, the schools help to shape and solve problems, both local and national. They touch the miner, the factory worker, the farmer, the professional man, the business executive, the wheels of industry, etc. The schools help to create and to solve all our social problems, and while they probably cannot immediately and directly solve many, if any of them, few, if any, of the difficulties can be worked out without the coopération of the schools.

Merely to mention these problems just by enumerating and stating them would require all the space that should be given to a magazine article. By actual count there are 396 major social problems and issues confronting us in America and Western Europe. These are increased more than a thousandfold over those of our forefathers. These fall under four major headings.¹

I. Problems arising in the modification of forms and functions of government. These total 144 problems.

II. Problems growing out of business and industry. There are 109 here.

III. Problems that are outgrowths of social interaction and maladjustment. These number 88.

¹The author is indebted to Dr. John A. Hockett for the statement of the problems listed in this paper. These are taken from his monograph, "A Determination of the Major Social Problems of American Life."

IV. Problems of international affairs. There are 55 here

A few under each heading just mentioned are stated below to illustrate their nature and to give a basis for indicating what the schools can and cannot do in solving them.

We cannot solve a problem of any kind until we can state it and define its limits. That is our first step. Each problem must be analyzed, the causes determined, and the factors in the solution indicated, before we can confidently enter upon a proper solution.

I. PROBLEMS ARISING IN THE MODIFICATION OF FORMS AND FUNCTIONS OF GOVERNMENT

1. The problem of devising means of making government more flexible in meeting the changing needs of a dynamic society.

2. The problem of making public service a permanent, adequately paid, expert profession with requirements and safeguards that will attract and utilize in the public interest the best wisdom, experience, and leadership of the country—securing the appointment and election of the best men, with qualifications for their work the determining factor.

These two can be solved by conscious effort on the part of the schools through social-science instruction and proper methods of motivation which create attitudes of willingness in students to follow expert guidance.

3 The problem of devising effective means of preventing, exposing, and punishing dishonesty, bribery, and misuses of office by public officials. Schools educate the officials. The school and the home form the attitudes of its students and children.

4 The problem of safeguarding government officials from malicious attacks and persecution by dissatisfied groups because of political considerations—prevention of political intimidation and blackmail.

Innuendo, whispering campaigns, and character assassination can be shown to be one of the greatest sins of individual relationships. The schools can develop an antitoxin attitude against attacking an innocent public administrator, attacks which have no other basis than gossip and an attempt to gain political advantage.

5. The problem of overcoming the apathy of voters and of getting them to vote. The problem of securing more intelligent, critical action, and independence in voting with less blind approval of party nominations.

Good citizenship does not consist even to any great extent in voting. This function has been and is now considered by some the chief basis of the so-called teaching of citizenship in the schools. Voting is a necessary prerogative and privilege of a good citizen, though probably one of the least of the functions of a citizen. The schools have not yet done anything flattering to their activity in this field, if we are to judge by results. There has not yet appeared a satisfactory textbook on the teaching of citizenship in the schools. The field for the textbook writer is wide open and the children are sadly in need of such a book and method. Most books are mere skeletal outlines of parliamentary law and the technical matter of casting one's vote, the forms of government, etc. This is all very well as information but probably has little to do with citizenship. A knowledge of such facts is highly desirable but a method that will give each citizen an informed self-starter attitude is a paramount need.

6. The problem of determining how soon and under what conditions the franchise should be given to immigrants.

Immigration is our oldest social problem, and is basic, for many of our fundamental difficulties issue from this source. The problem of Americanization, the melting pot theories are centered here. The schools have a major part to play in this process of making Americans out of those

who come to us with social backgrounds different from our native *mores*.

7. The problem of developing an enlightened, progressive, public opinion, based upon knowledge of facts, and representing in so far as possible an integration of the various interests of all groups.

Team work is the watchword of the day, coöperation is on the point of the pen of every writer on social and governmental problems today. America does now and will need for the next hundred years schooling in team work more than in individualization. Cold coöperations, the willingness to follow more than the desire to lead, will be the theme of our discussion and the core of our efforts. In this the schools can do much in developing attitudes and habits of team work.

8. The problem of determining the limits of the subjects to which public opinion can apply, and limiting the questions which are referred to public opinion to those on which intelligent popular action can be expected.

To develop the attitude of relying on experts rather than trying to develop the fallacious notion that every American citizen can vote intelligently on all public questions is a worthy service that the schools can render. Such questions as the tariff and all problems that involve highly technical knowledge before they can be understood are not proper subjects for the common man to decide.

9. The problem of increasing the facilities for open forum discussion of and exchange of opinion about social, political, economic, and international matters.

Pupils in school from the time they enter the junior-high-school level can learn much about many public questions of great concern to the whole population. These pupils can be taught to seek information, analyze it, and discuss it intelligently. Certain common, nontechnical problems should be studied in the lower grades of our high-school organization.

10. The problem of improving the type of man in State legislatures and the legislation enacted. Preventing the enactment of trivial, contradictory, unwise, ephemeral, and corrupt laws. Laws make or define crimes and some develop criminals. Those pupils who show superior ability should not only be encouraged to work on such problems but should be urged to do so. It is not at all impossible that there will result an extermination of the high I. Q.'s if they are not urged to busy themselves in the welfare of the common people. If they do not work a little more closely into our political system they will be the submerged group and not the dominant. They can be outvoted any time and probably will unless they make themselves felt in political life more than is their tendency at the present time. The president of the University of Illinois recently said in an address at Chicago that college men are losing their leadership because they are too indifferent or afraid to assert themselves and speak out on matters of policy of government and social problems.

Legislation is the function of experts. There should be some special training in sociology and all branches of social science to prepare men to legislate with some constructive vision.

11. The problem of promoting a widespread understanding of and interest in political principles, institutions, and problems. Education of the people to a true sense of the proper functions and administration of government.

Man is not necessarily a political animal, contrary to the old Greek Philosopher's notion, but he should be educated to be such. He is more a partisan animal. We have assumed too much and are easily blinded by shibboleths of faulty generalizers of the past.

12 The problem of promoting systematic, organized research in political matters, and of developing a science of public administration and statesmanship. We should pay for our government and expect service

13. The problem of safeguarding individual rights and civil liberties from subversion in times of peace and of war. Maintaining jury trial, freedom of speech, of press, and of assemblage, etc., against subversive legislation, such as espionage and sedition laws, censorship and unlawful acts of the Department of Justice. Securing legitimate civil rights and justice to liberals, radicals, conscientious objectors, and war-time political prisoners.

Conscience is a matter of social environment and is capable of being developed or changed by the home and school environment.

II. PROBLEMS GROWING OUT OF BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY

1. The problem of developing a public conscience that will not merely condemn corporations as such, but will blight with social disgrace the individual members of a corporation which do dishonorable deeds and reward with honor the individual members of those whose deeds are honorable.

Our legislatures or National Congress may enact all the laws they please, but unless there is a public sentiment behind the laws with at least a fairly unanimous supporting public opinion the laws are a mockery. This sentiment and public support can be greatly influenced by the work in the public schools. Probably they can do little at present with the present knowledge of emotivation and the teaching forces that they have. But there can be no doubt that within the realm of the activity in the organized area of educational forces rests much of this sentiment and attitude building.

2. The problem of improving the quality and character of consumption. Abolition of conspicuous display, ostentation, and competition in consumption. The promotion of research and education in the matter of efficient, intelligent use of material goods.

America is the most wasteful nation on earth today. No such lavish display and expenditure has ever existed on earth before. Conservation can be effectively taught in the schools and other nonschool agencies. The activities of the schools during the World War demonstrates in a small way what can be done.

III. PROBLEMS THAT ARE OUTGROWTHS OF SOCIAL INTERACTION AND MALADJUSTMENT

1. The problem of overcoming the inertness and indifference and counteracting the blind optimism of people who believe that social progress is inevitable. Arousing people to grip their problems and make effective their aspirations

Optimism unbounded is as dangerous and blinding as pessimism and probably more insidious. The cultivation of the habit of critically analyzing situations and estimating the values of the present status of social organizations and functions can certainly be fostered in the schools.

2. The problem of securing application of the spirit and methods of natural science to the social science. Educating people to attack fundamental causes of evil rather than symptoms and particular persons; to rectify general wrongs rather than mollify individual cases; to substitute positive modes of action for negative restrictions and purgings.

It is probably true that not more than twenty per cent of the people are capable of acquiring the scientific attitude. Even if we had that large a per cent of adult minds that could view in an unbiased way large social problems it would be more than nineteen per cent more than we now have, and the twenty per cent, if we had it, would serve as a mighty stabilizing factor in our crowd-minded tendencies at present.

3. The problem of securing and using for the nation's advantage the highest type of expert, responsible leader-

ship, in politics, in industry, in the pulpit, in the schools and colleges.

4. The problem of developing a free, vigorous, intellectual life. Getting men to think scientifically in terms of realities, with tolerance and critical open-mindedness. Combating prejudice, superstition, casuistry, worship of shibboleths and slogans, and irrelevant analogies, fear of facing facts, credulity, gullibility, and mental laziness.

Ideas of a novel nature, catchy notions that grip the imagination of the young and unlearned often are dangerous. Companionate marriage is an example. This is no new idea but a very primitive one. It is at least ten or twenty thousand years old and has been quite generally practised by most primitive tribes the world over. Judge Ben Lindsay and his followers to the contrary notwithstanding.

5. The problem of developing, stimulating, freeing, and conserving creative ability, initiative, and originality, and relating them to worthy purposes in the life of the community. Promoting art, literature, invention, and discovery through direct encouragement and the removal of censorship, restriction, repression, hostility, and fear.

Such problems as these will lend themselves to modification by the school but different methods of emotivation will have to be found out and tested for their reliability.

6. The problem of purifying our social atmosphere by widespread disapproval of extravagances, greed, exclusiveness, frivolity, place hunting, and vulgar envy; an effective and simpler life, especially among the rich. Abolishing the average man's emulation of the servility towards the wealthy.

7. The problem of providing adequate, free education from kindergarten to university for all persons willing and able to partake, and ensuring such a universal minimum of education as will enable all persons to fulfill their place in society.

8. The problem of securing in education a true understanding of the actual condition and functioning of the social order. Elimination of teaching of the false history, chauvinism, etc., and the production of textbooks to accomplish these ends.

9. The problem of developing through education broad social views and motives, and eliminating individualistic egoism.

10. The problem of securing in education free, vigorous thought, intellectual initiative, honesty, and discipline.

11. The problem of securing and maintaining academic freedom for all teachers; freedom to tell the truth in all fields.

12. The problem of increasing the efficiency of our education through greater knowledge of the art and science of education by securing the best minds of the community for teachers, and by better training for teachers.

This problem in the educational field, particularly in institutions of higher learning, is one of our greatest social problems. The cost of higher education is a pressing problem because we are not yet able to say just what part of the education of the individual should be borne by the individual educated on the one hand, and on the other what part should be borne by the society which is to profit by his education. But public education itself should be like the human body if it is an organism. It should have sufficient power for growth and repair to correct its own errors and diseases.

We have thought like the Children of Israel who believed that if they put their jewels into the fiery furnace there would come out refined a golden calf. We have believed that if we put our boys and girls with plenty of money into the colleges or the university they would come out educated, but instead many have come out a golden calf or a white elephant, probably stuffed with information and no well-trained and directed motives.

13. The problem of securing more rapid and widespread adoption of advances and improvements in educational methods. Overcoming the obscurantism, closed-mindedness, and conservatism of school boards.

14. The problem of eliminating professionalism and debasement of college athletics and the dominance of athletics in college.

15. The problem of elevating the tone, ideals, and ethical standards of the press, and securing an honest, impartial, and adequate supply of news, reducing the sensationalism, excesses of publicity, and glorification of crime and criminals.

16. The problem of elevating the tastes and demands of newspaper readers. The schools can elevate the tastes and standards of the reading public.

17. The problem of securing reformation and education of criminals, delinquents, and incapables through the use of the best scientific, psychological, and humane treatment, restoring them to usefulness whenever possible; at the same time protecting society and posterity from the effects of social disease. Elimination of retaliation, brutalization, and degradation.

18. The problem of elevating our standards of good manners. Protecting true courtesy, grace, and mutual consideration. Preventing the degradation of manners by our apotheosis of profit making.

IV PROBLEMS OF INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

1. The problem of abolishing war and ensuring world peace. Harmonizing conflicting national interests; mobilizing the world's peace sentiment.

2. The problem of promoting international morality, cooperation, and good will. Making nationalism a constructive, spiritual, educational, and cultural force; and eliminating its narrow, insolent, selfish aspects, its jingoism, and chauvinism.

In addition to a sufficient police force to support international law, there must also be an adequate public sentiment that will put force back of the mandates of all nations. With the moral force which the schools can foster behind any adequate system of police force the awful aspect of war can be eliminated. The schools can help to develop an anti-toxin for war.

We have had in past ages three "human scourges, famine, pestilence, and war." We have eliminated the first two from ravaging civilization, only the last one, war, remains. It would be idle to assume that with the brains and ingenuity of the human mind this third and last one could not be eliminated. Science cannot destroy civilization any more than any other force or body of knowledge in our life can vanquish us. Until now we have used the products of science at times wholly to destroy human beings. But it can be used with equal assurance to better our condition.

At my age I can remember the coming of the telephone, electric lights, the automobile, the wireless, the radio, the victrola, the movie, the airplane. We cannot find any other period of less than a half century in the whole history of man in which so many splendid inventions and discoveries could be listed. And yet within this period there has been more bloodshed than any other period of history. There is evidently something else needed to make men happy and successful than mere knowledge and economic freedom. We have in recent decades adopted the Faustian theory of knowledge, have sold our souls to the devil for knowledge, have accordingly enslaved ourselves and almost blighted our future hopes for harmonious development. Seventy-five per cent of all our national revenues goes to support instruments of war and destruction. The schools and all civil, peaceful pursuits must be maintained by the remaining twenty-five per cent of the total revenue collected.

CONCLUSIONS

A few concluding statements need now to be made. It may be that you have followed me thus far and feel a sense of bewilderment and confusion. Perhaps you are in a muddle. If so, you are conditioned properly in the way I have intended. I have tried to lead you to this point to impress upon you the awful importance of a vigorous attack upon the ills that beset us, the social problems that are increasing at an appalling rate.

Progress in its broadest sense leads in two directions. One towards disintegration and death. The other towards an increasing control over ourselves and our environment. The one points to destruction, the other to constructive endeavor. Neither direction is inevitable. And in this lies our hope.

Constructive human progress is brought about by an increase in our problems, provided our ability to solve and the actual solutions of these problems keep apace or ahead of the rapidity of their multiplication. There is no doubt that our problems have multiplied a thousand per cent over those that faced our forefathers. The problems, though on the increase, would be a healthy sign of growth provided we were busy in a controlled manner in solving them. If we can busy ourselves in increasing our hereditary ability by wholesome eugenics and education to produce more capable thinkers with sturdy moral stamina, we will be fortunate if we do so. Otherwise we may in a modified way repeat the tragedy of Greece and Rome.

The solution of all these social problems, so far as the schools are concerned, rests upon two activities of the schools. One is enlightenment and the other is emotivation. We have busied ourselves in the past almost exclusively with enlightenment and have let the scientific method of emotivation remain practically untouched. We know how to determine and measure educational skills but have not

definitely learned anything about other educational values, such as sentiment, feeling, motives, attitudes, springs of conduct, and appreciations. We cannot measure yet anything but the skill side of our educational activity. But appreciations may be yet the most important part of education, since certain of the tools of education are becoming less and less important for the individual, such as arithmetic, spelling, penmanship, oral reading, and the like.

I propose, as sound, two hypotheses. One, that appreciations can be taught and must not be left to accident. Can we teach these appreciations indirectly by punishment? I would not say never. Can they be taught by love? I would not say always. But specifically as to how they may be taught no one knows.

Another hypothesis equally as sound as the one above, and, if true, infinitely more important, is that it is within the province and function of the schools to create attitudes, motivate and control conduct. We are well supplied with methods of instruction, in ways of spreading factual information but very poor in proper effective methods of developing appreciations and attitudes.

Most of the ways suggested in which the schools can help in the solution of the problems enumerated is by creating habits of mind in straight thinking, habits of feeling, setting up inhibitions and taboos against certain practices, etc., establishing dynamic urges towards cooperative endeavor and team work. The schools can do two things, give information and condition behavior.

If we could be successful in inducing an individual merely to acquire all the information possible we have no assurance at all that we could by that alone modify or produce the desired conduct in the individual.

We have become too soft in our educational methods. We have forgotten to instill in those under our charge a desire for work. We have pulled the teeth of much of our educational effort. We forget that man is the only animal

that works, that animals hunt food for immediate consumption, that work, effort, striving is civilizing. In a word, patience is moral and loafing out of proportion is immoral because it does not develop patience. Morality began when man set about consciously to chip stone for a purpose. This is true because it requires patience, endurance, and a purpose. The quality of man which keeps him sticking to an unpleasant piece of work is highly humanizing and moral.

There is no need for pessimism in the theme of this paper nor is there any reason for one-hundred-per-cent optimism. There is a challenge and a basis for hope. The schools are always pointed towards the future. Their product is to be valuable tomorrow.

There is evidence that the schools are coming into their own and are assuming the full responsibility of their share of the burden in the continuous effort at a workable solution of many of our rapidly increasing and complex social problems.

RUSSIAN AND DANISH GUIDEPOSTS FOR AMERICAN EDUCATION

PHILIP W. L. COX

Since the Revolution of 1917, Soviet Russia has successfully launched a challenging new educational program. The dual system—elementary schools for the people stressing religion, and middle and higher schools, including colleges and universities, for the gentry—is being replaced by unified, comprehensive, secular, coeducational schools for every one. Young children, adolescent youths, and adults of all classes and vocations and linguistic groups are finding in the new schools of new Russia opportunities for rich experience.¹

It is true, of course, that education in Soviet Russia is still quantitatively inadequate for its great and self-recognized needs. Russia is not unique in this regard, however; the same condition holds for the United States and England; it must always be characteristic of a growing world. Nevertheless, so broadly and intelligently and magnificently is the Russian project conceived that it is expected in five years to have provisions for all who can be persuaded or even compelled to partake of the opportunities. Meantime, preference is given to the children of workers and of the nonpropertied or small-propertied peasants.

"This organizing skill seems to reach down into the four walls of the classroom, accounting partly, perhaps, for the extraordinary success of the excursion method, the Dalton laboratory plan, the socialized group—or collective—plan, the complex, the Young Pioneers, the League of Communist Youth, natural history circles, school museums, and a long list of other achievements, born from the *rapprochement* which exists between the teacher, the pupil, the community, and the everyday work of the school. Is it organizing ability or is it spiritual insight and artistic skill? I do not know. I only know that in Soviet Russia, something has put Youth and the Future upon pedestals. Can she keep them there?"

¹The statements and quotations regarding Russian education are based on *The New Schools of New Russia*, by Lucy L. W. Wilson (Vanguard Press, 1928).

The educational program is most comprehensive. In the day schools, the masses are given much the same kinds of education that typify the more progressive private and public schools of the United States. Practically universal, in the elementary schools, at least, is the *complex method*, a project curriculum based on children's life and community life.

"More concretely, the *complexes* are *nature, work, human relations*, first as they are exhibited and function in the small world of the child, and, later, in the larger world. In the elementary grades these *complexes* are not divided into subjects, but into a series of problems, each helping and leading to the solution of the next and forming a harmonious unit. The complex *work* is studied along with *nature* and the complex of *society* follows *work*, because the formations of society are based on the conditions of labor—at least, so thinks Soviet Russia!"

"To each teacher is given an outline program, whether for a rural district, or a factory or industrial district, or a small town unconnected with either of the above. In addition, there are separate programs, for the further enlightenment of the teacher, for mathematics, art, drama, physical training, student government, etc. *But each teacher is expected to develop his own program in cooperation with the rest of the faculty and most definitely in cooperation with the children themselves.*"

Two basic principles underlie education in Soviet Russia: (1) social education of all children to the age of fifteen is the affair not of the family but of and for the State; (2) this education must be collective or coöperative—the ability to give to others and to get from them is the major goal, the acquisition of information and skills is incidental and secondary. Certain minimal abilities and knowledges are, however, required but they are truly socially significant traits, implicit in the principles just cited. Children are expected to develop (1) *orientation abilities*—the use of maps, trolleys, post office, telephone, etc.; (2) *fixation abilities*—the representation of objects, plans, occurrences by sketches and by oral and written language; (3) *the physical care of human beings*, including clothing and shelter; (4) *practical abilities*—construction and repair of household and mechanical utensils, the care of plants and ani-

mals, the collection and use of data gathered from observation, the dictionary, directory, and museums; and (5) the *social participation abilities*—leading meetings, writing minutes, organization of a club, a celebration, or the like. Such objectives as these typify also the program of our best American schools

The day schools of Russia to be appreciated must be seen in their setting of other educational institutions which are serving children and adults.

Among them may be listed "village playgrounds, schools for peasant youth, factory schools, professional schools, technical colleges, *rabfaks* (workers' colleges), communist universities, stations for the liquidation of illiteracy, general education schools for adults, political schools and courses, Soviet and party schools and courses, reading rooms, peoples' houses, clubs, red corners, traveling libraries, wall and radio newspapers. In addition, drama, moving pictures, music, art, museums, and other scientific institutions, publishing houses, and the like are now dominated by the Commissariat of Education in order that all the doors of life may be opened to all the people. In Russia, education means, literally, life more abundantly."

How shall we account for this remarkable program? Dr. Wilson gives major credit to Lunacharsky, Peoples' Commissar of Education, poet, dramatist, revolutionist, and gentleman, who recognized the importance of other factors than schools in the education of the people; to Krupskaya, better known as Krupsky, the widow of Lenin, through whom the best of American, German, and English educational science and practice was made available for Russia; to Shatsky, managing editor of the "First Experiment Station," the outgrowth of the First Moscow Settlement which he together with the engineer Zelenko and the kindergartner Louise Schleger, started in 1905, inspired by the success of Jane Addams's work at Hull House, Chicago; to Pistrak, engineer, communist, and philosopher, who stressed the need for definite *liaison* between the school and real life and for the auto-organization of pupils; and

to Blonsky, philosopher, scientist, and head of the largest school in Moscow.

In Denmark, the origin, scope, and procedure of the folk high schools have been quite different from those of the new Russian schools. In the former case a quarter century of propaganda and preparation preceded the experimental beginnings of Kristen Kold; attendance is voluntary, limited to young adults, and brief; each school is owned by its faculty; the Government, while it subsidizes them, has no power to control what is taught or how it is taught. In Russia the Government by a sweeping and intensive program introduces and extends the new school, encourages and, in some cases, compels attendance by people of all ages. Nevertheless, in spite of the obvious differences, the major aim of stimulation to thought and activity, and hence, of attaining a better world, guides both forward-looking experiments.

In Denmark, Grundtvig and his successors have sought to stimulate and encourage self-selected young men and young women to appreciate those *mores* of the Danish people which exalt friendliness, courtesy, cooperation, industry, and beauty. In new Russia, the leaders seek rather to superimpose a culture and an ideology which have little counterpart in the fundamental lives of Tartars, Turks, Karagassians, Kalmucks, Kirghiz, Ukrainians, White Russians, Poles, Finns, Germans, Jews, Armenians, and Muscovites. Hence, Russia has elaborated a most complete educational program for teaching to all the millions of diverse peoples of all ages "the truth" as the leaders honestly conceive the truth to be. In Denmark, on the other hand, no man pretends to know "the truth" in any final sense of the word.

How should America regard these two experiments? The massive and extensive organization of the Russian venture must challenge our admiration. We must envy the grasp and intelligence with which the Russian leaders have correlated all agencies for accelerating the changes which

they wish to bring about. For Americans, too, enjoy organization.

Like Russia, America has not so nearly universal a folk inheritance as rural Denmark, and what we have is often out of harmony with our mechanical civilization. Unlike Russia, however, we have no definite conception of the world-to-be. In the Declaration of Independence, in the Preamble of the Constitution, in Lincoln's addresses, and in Dewey's definition we find our aspirations stated, but the social mechanisms and human traits by which they may be achieved are left to the processes of social evolution. Certain attitudes and skills, such as tolerance and literacy, we may be sufficiently sure about to justify sweeping coordinations of agencies which may promote them. Concerning others, such as "patriotism," "belief in a protective tariff," knowledge of place geography, appreciation of the benevolence of the "power trust," we are less certain.

In the educational policies of American democracy, the spirit of tolerance and the respect for individual expression typical of Denmark are better guides than the sweeping paternalism and superimposition of uniformity of attitudes which characterize the Russian state-controlled education. For, in our democracy, no man can know the end we seek except as an abstract aspiration. Our faith in the individual precludes his regimentation—at least, in times of peace. Our social institutions have their own purposes; they cannot be commandeered to serve the State's educational program.

Nevertheless, there are important aspects of the Russian program for community cooperation to which American educators should give careful attention. Much of what is best in the Russian program can be adapted both within and outside the school. Such adaptations will call for sharp changes in our school practices.

In our schools, pupils and teachers meet in face-to-face social groups, the most important and best controlled of

which are the recitation classes, the home rooms, the assembly, and the clubs. In these groups, the pupils join with some degree of mutuality in the consideration of some phases of their environments. Occasionally, the aspects of the environment "studied" are so remote that neither pupils nor teachers know the meaning of what they are "studying"; e.g., Latin grammar, algebraic factoring. Frequently, however, the "subject matter" could be related to the school and community social activities, if we set our minds to it.

In our best schools, the home-room programs, the clubs, the assemblies, and some aspects of the curriculum are increasingly being modified so as more effectively to reënforce, guide, and direct the activities of pupils, both within the school, and in relation to other educational activities outside the school.

In America, too, there are definite educational programs launched by social-service agencies directed towards the improvement of our school children. At one time or another, for example, all of the following agencies have undertaken more or less effective campaigns to interest and modify the attitudes and behavior of our youths: the Camp Fire Girls, Citizens' Military Training Camps, American Red Cross, League of Nations Non-Partisan Association, American Legion, United States Chamber of Commerce, General Federation of Women's Clubs, World Peace Foundation, National Council of Catholic Women, American Federation of Labor, Child Health Association, Federal Council of Churches, Boy Scouts of America, Knights of Columbus, Reserve Officers' Association, American Playground Association, American Federation of Teachers, Junior Order of American Mechanics, Women's Christian Temperance Union, Daughters of the American Revolution, Sons of the American Revolution, American Athletic Association. With the programs and desires of all of these agencies the school is not in uniform agreement. In the

intentions and efforts of most of them, however, the school can find some ground for cooperation and selective emphasis.

Perhaps, indeed, a voluntary cooperation may sometimes develop between all agencies which would serve Youth and the Future which may have much the external appearance of the Russian system. Internally, however, it will probably never be the same. Our *goal* may be the same as Russia's, no one knows; but our *road towards our unknown goal* will be that of Denmark rather than that of Russia.

READING MUSIC PROGRAMS INTELLIGENTLY

HENRY HARAP

It is reasonable to assume that the program which is put into the hands of the concert audience is intended to be read and understood. A number of years of rather regular attendance at musical entertainments has not given me a mastery of the vocabulary of concert programs. The novice has a much harder time. With this in view, I undertook a small preliminary investigation to discover the most common terms found in a collection of programs made by one person over a period of ten years, from 1917 to 1927.

METHOD

The total collection consisted of 201 programs: orchestra, 95; opera, 36; miscellaneous, 20; vocal, 18; piano, 17; chamber music, 10; organ, 6; oratorio, 5; and violin, 4. The total number of terms was 2670. The final list of 176 terms consisted of those which occurred at least twice. One hundred and seventeen terms were excluded because they occurred only once.

The terms were first underscored in the programs and later transferred to cards. The cards were arranged in alphabetical order and then counted to determine the frequency of occurrence of each term. The frequencies were recorded first by type of music and then for all types combined. Musical terms which were used in titles such as *tone poem* were included. The Italian musical phrases were broken up into separate words because they can be learned most economically in that way. Key names, which occurred frequently were excluded. Derivatives of words were listed separately when they were not obvious to the lay person or when they involved a considerable change in meaning.

LIMITATIONS

The limitations of this study are numerous. It represents the taste of only one person, strongly favoring orchestral music. There are not enough organ, oratorio, and violin programs to show up their special vocabulary to an appreciable degree. The primary purpose of the investigation is to point out a field for study and to suggest the simple procedure involved. To some it may be interesting as an outline of a decade of the musical life of one layman. To have any reliability at all, the study should have been based upon the accumulation of programs of at least fifty persons.

RESULTS

The outcome of the study is a list of 176 most common musical terms used in the programs, together with a figure showing how frequently each term occurs. Such a list, if complete, could be used first as a musical vocabulary to be mastered, and second as an index of the most important topics of musical study for the lay person. It should be clear that we are here concerned, exclusively, with interpretation of musical literature by the lay person. Such a list of terms has nothing to do with a complete course of training for what might be called the creative musical activities. We are not concerned here with the method of instruction to be used, but I feel constrained to state that a purely verbal procedure would be inadequate. Without actual illustrative music, the terms would have little meaning. The list is presented alphabetically. For teaching purposes it would have to be organized into the most effective groups. Certain main subdivisions suggest themselves from a cursory examination of the list. These include musical instruments; types of musical compositions (concerto); types of musical forms (minuet); Italian descriptive terms used in scores (*allegro*); and words descriptive of musical execution (*tempo*).

This study suggests the possibility of a parallel study to discover the most common compositions which occur in the experience of about fifty representative lay musical patrons. These, too, might be used as a basis of instruction for effective enjoyment of the selections one is most likely to hear. Furthermore, lists of musical terms and compositions could be used for the purpose of designing tests of interpretative musical accomplishment.

MUSICAL TERMS OCCURRING IN 201 PROGRAMS AND THEIR FREQUENCY
OF OCCURRENCE

accompanist	9	cantabile. . .	14
adagietto.	2	caprice	2
adagio	47	carillon	2
agitato . . .	3	cello . . .	8
air . . .	18	chamber music .	5
alcuna	2	chorale . .	3
allegretto . .	24	chorus	72
allegro . . .	224	composer	5
alto . . .	8	composition . .	2
amoroso . . .	2	con	46
andante . . .	68	concert	16
andantino	6	concertmeister...	3
anima	3	concerto. . .	37
animé. . . .	6	conductor . .	32
appassionata .	5	contralto . .	9
aria.	51	corps de ballet	5
arioso	22		
arranged . . .	11	dance	24
assai	13	deciso	2
asoz	2	duet	13
bacchanale . .	2	e feroce	2
ballad.	7	elegia	4
ballet.	18	encore	3
barcarolle	2	energico	9
baritone . . .	15	English horn	4
bass.	7	ensemble . . .	2
basso.	2	e passionata . .	2
ben	5	étude	11
berceuse	6		
brass	2	fantasy.	23
brio	15	(fantasia, fantasie)	

finale	31	nocturne	15
first violin	4	non	34
flute	7		
folk songs	5	obligato	10
fugue	15	oboe	2
funèbre	2	opera	21
funerale	2	opus	134
fuoco	6	oratorio	3
		orchestra	38
gigue (giga)	4	orchestrated	2
giocoso	8	organ	11
grazia	4	overture	82
grazioso	4		
		passacaglia	2
harp	4	passionato	2
horn	5	pastorale	7
hymn	3	piano	47
		pianoforte	18
impromptu	4	più	3
improvisation	2	poco	11
incidental dance	5	poem	9
intermezzo	8	polonaise	3
introduction	2	prelude	42
		première danseuse	4
lamentoso	3	presto	18
largo	9	prologue	5
largamento	2		
larghetto	4	quartet	28
legende	5	quintet	2
lento (lent)	15	quasi	4
libretto	15		
licenza	3	romanza	2
		rococo	2
ma	15	rondo	16
maestro	3	recital	23
maestoso	12	recitative	29
march	37	rhapsody	21
menuet	5	rubato	2
(minuet)			
menuetto	13	sarabande	2
mixolydian	2	scherzando	2
moderato	46	scherzo	27
modéré	2	second violin	3
modérément	2	semplice	4
molto	32	serenade	13
movement	8	sextet	2
music drama	3	solenne	2

solo.	44	tranquillo	2
sonata,	19	trio	12
soprano	29	troppo	32
sostenuto	11	trumpet	2
spirito	2	un	5
stage director	28	valse	12
string	14	variations	12
suite	31	variazione	2
symphony	59	viola	10
symphonic poem	3	violin	40
technical director	13	violoncello	21
tempo	3	vivace	33
tenor	24	vivo	6
theme	5	waltz	15
toccata	9		
tone poem	5		

SOCIOLOGY APPLIED IN CURRICULUM MAKING

GEORGE A. RETAN

There is just now in the making a syllabus of each course offered in the State teachers colleges of Pennsylvania. The writer has had assigned him, as his part in this work, the task of making the first outline of the course "Technique of Teaching." This course is given in the same semester in which the student is doing practice teaching and advanced observation. In fact, the teaching, observation, technique, and supervisory conferences are unified in a way that makes the semester work all center in the classroom work of the student. In making this outline certain difficulties have arisen that seem sufficiently interesting to justify presentation to the readers of this JOURNAL. These difficulties arise from the conflicting claims of educational psychology and educational sociology.

In the first place it is necessary to set up the objectives of the course. In looking over the possible material and texts there is immediate evidence that the only carefully formulated work along this line has been oriented wholly from a psychological point of view. While there is considerable evidence of a partial sociological viewpoint, the authors do not utilize the material in the same careful way in which they have utilized psychology. For instance, Thomas, *Principles and Technique of Teaching*, states that his book is based on psychological studies centering in the learning process of the child. At the same time his book contains two chapters purely sociological and his criticism of individual instruction is sociological. No doubt this is largely true because the psychological material has been so fully analyzed and outlined for this purpose. If we are to accept the statement of Ellwood, *Journal of Educational Sociology*, Vol. 1, No. 1, page 27—"It must be emphasized that the learning process has social aspects and that these

aspects have not yet been sufficiently studied either by sociologists or educationists"—we must state sociological objectives. That Ellwood is not alone in this view is shown by the following quotation from Barnard's *Introduction to Social Psychology*: "The problem of making the school interesting is that of making the connection between it and the actual world of people as he (the pupil) has learned to know it, as close as possible." The attitude of Dewey towards this question is well known. His whole book, *Democracy and Education*, is built on the thesis of the socializing value of the right kind of school. ". . . in an educational scheme where learning is the accompaniment of continuous activities or occupations which have a social aim and utilize the materials of typical social situations . . . the school itself becomes a form of social life, a miniature community and one in close interaction with the other modes of associated experience beyond school walls" (*Democracy and Education*, summary of last chapter.) It would seem necessary, therefore, to formulate course objectives as follows:

(a) To utilize the sociological and psychological principles of teaching in outlining correct classroom procedures.

(b) To make provision that the student may see these principles exemplified in artistic teaching in the demonstration, observation, and training-school classes.

The second requirement, that of outlining briefly the material to be utilized in realizing the objectives, also presented little difficulty on the psychological side. The common recognition of the Thorndikian vocabulary has given a more or less static character to this phase of the work. But on the sociological side there is again no such clear formulation as there is of the psychological laws of learning. The texts on educational sociology deal rather with *the school as a social institution than with the child as a social individual and the classroom as a social group*. Kilpatrick's *Education for a Changing Civilization* comes

most closely to this point of view. "Yet another rule or condition of learning demands actual experiencing in the social situation." "The best learning conditions are present when teacher and pupils are joint coöperators in a shared enterprise and each item and effort is judged by the way it works in the joint life rather than upon any word of external authority." "We never learn just one thing at a time, but always many things at once." "Out of these . . . , these concomitant learnings, come in time life's effectual attitudes." "Experience must be social; without the social quality experience would indeed be poor and thin." In his criticism of the individual instruction plans,¹ Kilpatrick also says, "Education is the continuous remaking of life by acquiring subject matter as it is needed for present behavior." The other authors touching on the sociological principles underlying method do so apart from any attempt to state teaching procedures.

Dewey in his *Reconstruction of Philosophy and Democracy and Education* sets up "social democracy" as the ultimate goal in education. The "cardinal principles of education," as an attempt to formulate this goal in terms of practical schoolroom aims, names seven objectives of which at least five are distinctly social in nature.

Ellwood writes,² "Educational sociology will place social intelligence first among the aims of education." In *The Psychology of Human Society* he clearly states his belief in the school as the primary telic agent in society: "Whether intelligence works in a social or antisocial direction is, accordingly, altogether a matter of education." "Education must be the chief means of socializing the individual and the main reliance of civilized human society in securing higher types of social order." "The learning process is the method by which humanity improves its social adjustments." "The great service which Lester F. Ward

¹Twenty-fourth Year Book, National Society for the Study of Education, p. 286.
²*Journal of Educational Sociology*, I, 1

rendered to the social sciences was to demonstrate that education was the initial means of progress in human society." If we accept these views we must formulate sociological bases. In an attempt to do this it seems that we must accept, first: social instincts or social behavior patterns, according to the terminology which one agrees with as fundamental. Dewey's *Reconstruction in Philosophy* says, "Man is a social animal. The heart of the sociality of man is in education." With this must go, second, the truth emphasized by Kilpatrick, that learning is never single.

The child comes to school with social attitudes. In a given class in arithmetic he not only is learning that eight and five are thirteen through participation in a game of dominoes with a group, but his behavior patterns are being constantly modified by the social contacts, by the success or failure of the game of dominoes, and by the behavior of the individuals of the group as well as by the personality of the teacher.

Along with these two basal principles we need to accept as fundamental in the situation, first, that the schoolroom is a group in real life. The school is not artificial and cannot be; no matter how stereotyped the work, it is still being attacked by a number of persons working together for a common end. It is, therefore, a real group. The outcomes may be artificial and unreal—the life itself cannot be unreal. The closer it approaches the life situation the more educative it becomes. Cooley's *Social Process* says, "Since the school environment is comparatively easy to control, here is the place to create an ideal formative group or system of groups, which shall envelop the individual and mould his growth. . . ." "Here, if anywhere, we can ensure his learning loyalty, discipline, service, personal address, and democratic coöperation, all by willing practice in the fellowship of his contemporaries." Secondly, we may provisionally accept social democracy as a legitimate goal in education and check up our classroom procedures by the

test of how far they advance or retard the attainment of such a goal in school and in life. In the consideration of the school as a social group we need to examine the force of social approvals and disapprovals and we should set forth the social virtues which we anticipate as outcomes of our group activities: cooperation, fairness, tolerance, etc.

While the application of the psychological and sociological principles in the classroom is a unit, we may yet analyze certain phases, notably in schoolroom management, where the sociological are dominant. The outline given below is a visual presentation of one way of organizing the work. In the time allotments given to the various sub-heads twenty-four of thirty-five periods are to be devoted to the application; ten are assigned to the development of the principles. This is really review work as the class has had psychology and educational sociology previously. The procedure is a statement of how the course is to be handled by the instructor in charge.

THE TECHNIQUE OF TEACHING

I. OBJECTIVES

- (a) To utilize the sociological and psychological principles of teaching in outlining correct classroom procedures.
- (b) To make provision that the student may see these principles exemplified in artistic teaching in the training school.

II. OUTLINE

1. Sociological Principles

- A. The basis: The social instincts
Concomitant learnings
- B. The schoolroom group as a life situation
Social approval and disapproval
The outcomes of cooperative undertakings
- C. Social democracy as an aim in education
The school as a telic agent

2. Psychological Principles

- A. The basis:
Original nature
The laws of learning
Individual differences

- B. Self-activity
- C. Interest-motivation
- D. Mind-set
- 3. Their Application
 - A. Social democracy in the schoolroom
 - a. The place and function of routine
 - b. Discipline as a social end, not a means
 - c. The socialized recitation
 - d. Extracurricular activities
 - e. Teacher personality—its social significance, its development
 - B Classroom procedures
 - a Anticipated outcomes: habits and skills
Knowledge
Appreciation and attitudes
 - b. Organization of subject matter—planning
Principles of organization
 - c. Types of procedure
Drill
Review
Problems
Study-assignment
Appreciation
Project
 - d. Utilization of materials
Visual aids, seat work, etc.
 - C Classroom organization
Testing and grouping
 - D. Evaluation of special methods
Contracts
Winetka Plan
Free schools, etc.
- III. PROCEDURE
 - A. Observation of demonstration teaching and reports on the basis of definitely assigned topics and questions.
 - B. Classroom recitation on the basis of texts, assigned questions, and collateral readings.
 - C. Check-up
Success or failure in application of theory in student-teacher assignment.

HOW MANY COLLEGES?

STEPHEN G. RICH

Ohio, with a population of 5,759,000 in 1920, had at that time 40 universities and colleges, all of which were offering the full arts-college course. New Jersey, with 3,155,000 population at this same time, had 6 arts colleges, but sent twice as many students to colleges outside the State as were cared for within its borders. New York, with 10,385,000 population, had 43 arts colleges, but as it serves a portion of New Jersey also for this grade of education, should be counted as having at least another million population.

Ohio has one arts college for every 144,000 inhabitants; New Jersey one for every 526,000, and New York one for every 242,000.

If we take the New York City metropolitan area as recently defined, covering roughly a 40-mile circle around the city, we find 13 arts colleges serving a population of approximately 8,000,000; this is one college for every 615,000 inhabitants.

If the New York City metropolitan area is sufficiently supplied with colleges, the State as a whole has too many and Ohio has a wild excess. If Ohio is merely satisfactorily supplied, New Jersey, New York State, and the New York City metropolitan area are woefully underserved. The extent to which New York City and New Jersey students go to colleges away from home diminishes the intensity of the situation; the fact that Princeton, Columbia, Barnard, and other metropolitan colleges draw anywhere from a fourth to a half of their students from outside their local populations will approximately compensate for this situation.

The question as to desirable numbers of colleges cannot be settled on any purely statistical basis, and least of all on any basis of ratios of colleges to population. The first

and most obvious factor entering into the situation is that of the size of the colleges in any particular area. New York City has, for example, in the Washington Square College and the College of the City of New York, institutions with student bodies topping the five-thousand mark. Either of these is equivalent to five typical Ohio colleges, so far as caring for numbers of students is concerned.

Our preliminary statistical statements are therefore accurate enough but entirely irrelevant in that they omit an essential factor in deciding whether any region is over-supplied, properly cared for, or starved in collegiate instruction.

A map showing colleges and transportation lines would give us a further step in analysis of the problem. Such a map would indicate that the general tendency is for one college or a group of colleges to be situated at some convenient point within what may be called a social unit of transportation. If the map is drawn to show the railways of thirty to forty years ago, and omits trolleys, motor roads, and other modern agencies of transportation, it shows this relation more clearly. For example, we find that in New Jersey the two oldest and best known colleges are situated about fifteen miles apart along a route that by rail (and still earlier by stagecoach) is the main artery of communication within the State. New York, as converging point of many transportation routes, naturally has been a favored center for the establishment of colleges and has been one of the outstanding localities in which colleges have grown to immense size.

Without describing in detail the analysis, it must here suffice to say that the general tendency, up to thirty years ago, appears to have been to have a college located at a convenient center within a large unit of population; the unit has been such as to provide a student body of 200 to 500 and to permit the majority to reach home within two hours. Recently, improvements in transportation have made

the two-hour range somewhat larger in distance; hence the tendency towards larger student bodies rather than towards more colleges, as the social desirability of college education led to increased attendances.

The old situation still holds true for the supposedly undercolleged State of New Jersey and for the New York City metropolitan area; it certainly is conspicuously true for New York State north of the city. With the colleges in Philadelphia and New York conveniently accessible, only the thinly populated portions of New Jersey are beyond the two-hour travel limit from some college. Indeed, for much of this state, as for practically all the New York City metropolitan area, the typical travel time to college is little over an hour. The effect of this is shown by the extent to which the students have become nonresident as far as the campus is concerned: "commuters," as they are called at University Heights (New York University). This convenient term used without regard to whether the travel is by rail, subway, trolley, or bus, will be used for nonresident students throughout this article.

The recent development of the arts colleges has consisted in an increase in numbers of students in existing colleges, rather than in the establishment of new colleges. Washington Square College of New York University is the only new college established in New York City or the immediate suburbs within thirty years, except the women's college opened at Bronxville in 1928. Upsala College at East Orange, New Jersey, until lately small, is over thirty-five years old; Georgian Court College at Lakewood, New Jersey, is small and is purposely resident only; it is the only new college within the metropolitan area. New Rochelle College for Women, nominally new, really dates back a fair number of years.

The problem of how many colleges we need is thus not a simple one but involves many factors. The analysis to this point should indicate that at least two factors must be

dealt with outside of that of ratio of number of colleges to population served:

(1) The commuter has come to be a permanent and large element in the student body.

(2) The relative advantages of colleges of various sizes must be known before any decision as to needs for colleges can be made.

Factor one, the commuters, may be taken first of all as a sign that the colleges are coming to serve groups within the community that hitherto have been outside the influence of collegiate education. Families without sufficient surplus income to maintain one or two members in residence away from home are, nevertheless, now able to give these members college education. Families that dislike to trust their young members away from home are also able to give them college education as commuters. Thus the heterogeneity of the college student population¹ is considerably increased: more so than appears on the surface, since students of identical antecedents are strikingly differentiated as members of a college community when some commute and some are resident students.

On factor two, the relative advantages of large and small colleges, a war of opinion has waged for several decades, and apparently no actual knowledge is yet at hand. It is evident from the frenzied struggle of colleges some fifteen years ago to increase their sizes, that there was then no serious belief among those actively engaged in college education that the small college had any noticeable advantages. It is equally evident that, since only downright physical limitations have led to restriction of numbers since the World War, there is not now any serious belief that a large college does its work any less well than a small

¹See S. G. Rich, "An Approach to the Problem of the Curriculum in the Arts Colleges," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, II, 4, 282, and S. G. Rich, "Suggestions Towards Meeting Some Specific Needs in the Curricula of Arts Colleges," *Ibid.*, II, 2, 99.

one. It is perfectly true that one hears old alumni bewailing the "mob colleges" of today; but it is noticeable that these very alumni do not send their children to small colleges but to these very "mob colleges."

To the sociologist, however, the question must remain an open one. This article will not attempt to solve it, but it will attempt to lay down some preliminary criteria as an aid towards such solution.

The first criterion, and perhaps the most important, is the *range of needs to be met*. I have² explained in some detail the preprofessional nature of the arts college, and have at the same time indicated the immense variety of preprofessional needs which the curriculum may legitimately be asked to supply. It will be evident—indeed obvious—that unless the college is large enough to meet at least all the more usual preprofessional needs, it will be too small. Thus, a college that has so few students in chemistry that premedical students, future chemical engineers, future high-school science teachers, future field geologists, etc., must all be given the same chemistry through the sophomore year, cannot meet all preprofessional needs. A similar statement might be made for each and every field of instruction. Of course, an arts college may deliberately limit itself to one or a few preprofessional fields, as do the engineering colleges in the purely preprofessional work of their freshman year; but there is no evidence that any college has yet taken such a step.

The opinion is here hazarded that a college of less than 500 students can probably not meet any great range of preprofessional needs; and that probably the college of 600 to 700 students represents the lower limit of effective size in this respect.

The second criterion may perhaps best be worded: "In what size college can the educative processes best be carried on?" Let an illustration serve for discussion here. Premedical freshman biology is carried on with a small

²*Op cit*

group in the University Heights Arts College of New York University and with a very large group in the Washington Square College of that same university. At the Heights and the Square the lectures, reading, and laboratory work are conducted substantially in the same way, on almost identical subject matter. The small Heights group may perhaps have less distinguished and learned professors lecturing to them; but the much-talked-of personal contact of professor and student exists to a higher degree than at the Square. The Heights laboratory sections are smaller and less formal in conduct. We do not yet know in which type of organization there is actually more educating being done; and until we have evidence, we must not decide. What little evidence we have deals exclusively with *information* as an outcome of education. Evidently, in preprofessional work, attitudes and skills are of equal importance. Until we have evidence of the superiority of the small or the large class and college in these respects, we are not entitled to decide. The only indication that we have is the preference of those engaged in actual professional education for small groups, with personal contact.

The writer must here record his own prejudice in favor of the small college, from experience in both a large college (Harvard) and a small one (University Heights, New York University), as an undergraduate. In his case, the small college educated far more, despite supposedly inferior professors, than did the large one.

The third criterion is *the noncurricular education to be given*. This does not mean merely the extent to which students engage in "extracurricular activities." It refers to all the education resulting from contact of student with student and noncurricular contact of faculty member and student. A case from a professional school illustrates this neatly. The weekly informal luncheons of a professional fraternity at a well-known school of education are, though devoid of "academic credit," extremely educative to the

men who attend these gatherings. In providing professional attitudes, points of view, and the like; in providing mutual discussion of active problems, and so forth, these luncheons are probably worth at least a "6-point graduate course." In the smaller college the opportunities for students meeting one another and getting acquainted so that they become mutually educative are greater than in a huge heterogeneous mass. The fraternity as a rallying center is not needed. Indeed, it has been the writer's privilege and joy to be one of such a group in a small college; but when an undergraduate at a large college, he never was able to make such contact, and as a graduate professional student it required a fraternity for him to form such contacts.

With the great enlargement of the commuters as a constituent of the college population, the difficulty of making these noncurricular educative contacts is greatly increased. In a resident college, there are up to 16 hours a day in which they may occur. Commuters rarely are on the campus over six or seven hours; often much less. Hence it would appear that the college of less than a thousand students is likely to offer the commuter a superior opportunity for noncurricular education.

The question asked at the beginning of this article may therefore be answered *in general terms only*:

We need enough separate arts colleges so that each student is given maximum opportunity for having his curricular needs met; securing the most effective instruction; establishing needed contacts for noncurricular education.

It is possible that the college with five thousand students may do these tasks as effectively as that of five hundred; but we do not know. We need knowledge; we have only opinions, and opinions based mainly on personal likes and dislikes. Perhaps Ohio is over-supplied with colleges; perhaps not. Who shall say until we know how far these colleges are doing the tasks that are legitimately theirs? Per-

haps New Jersey needs only a greatly enlarged Rutgers and a huge Upsala College; perhaps on the other hand, there should be a college in Paterson, one in Hudson County, another, in addition to Upsala, near Newark, one near Trenton, one near Camden. We do not yet know which will render the most service. Perhaps New York City ought to have a dozen more colleges; or perhaps University Heights, Adelphi, St. John's, Manhattan, and Barnard ought to be enlarged to the size of City College. We do not know which development will supply the needs of the community.

We need information; and until we have it the question of "How many colleges?" cannot be answered.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

EDITORIAL NOTE: *It is designed to make this department a clearing house (1) for information about current research problems of interest to educational sociology, and (2) for ideas with reference to research methods and techniques in this field. Readers are urged to report projects and suggestions as to methods of research. This department desires to encourage and stimulate cooperation in research*

SOCIAL ANALYSIS OF COLLEGE COMMUNITIES

A new project in educational sociology is under way in the Central West. During the last year a small committee has been formed for the purpose of carrying forward social analyses of college communities. With headquarters at Chicago this committee has approached the administrators of about three hundred colleges with a proposition that looks towards an exploratory social analysis in each college or university. These exploratory social analyses are made for the colleges with the coöperation of local educational leaders at each point, by the director of research of the Chicago Committee, Dr. Martin Hayes Bickham.

Although the committee was not organized until last February, its work has got under way very rapidly and has met with considerable favor from administrators and others interested in securing a better understanding of the complex social conditions now prevailing in most of our higher centers of education. The committee has had replies from about one hundred colleges expressing interest in the new plans and asking for more information. Dr. Bickham has made personal visits to about seventy-five institutions in an attempt to work out techniques for the further development of these social analyses. In addition, intensive analyses have been carried out in fourteen colleges and universities. These have ranged from the small denominational college of about three hundred students to the large State institution of five thousand.

Dr. Bickham reported to the annual meeting of the Church Boards of Education and the American Association of Colleges at their January meeting in Chattanooga on some of his findings in the colleges ranging from locations in Tennessee in the South to Minnesota in the North. In February he made a special report to the Illinois Federation of Colleges on some of his findings from the social analyses made in five institutions within that State.

Any one interested in this constructive project in the field of the application of sociology to the communities of higher education may obtain additional information by writing to the Director of the Committee on Social Analysis of College Communities, 53 West Jackson Street, Chicago, Ill.

SOCIAL SCIENCE ABSTRACTS

Readers of the JOURNAL will agree that in no division of the science of sociology is a wide acquaintance with contributions to our knowledge of sociology more important than in educational sociology. It is in consideration of this fact that we announce the establishment of the journal of *Social Science Abstracts* to provide brief summaries of new material as promptly as possible after publication, and thus help readers keep abreast of the rapidly increasing output of new work.

Abstracts will be made of articles in periodicals (beginning with July 1, 1928) and of books, monographs, pamphlets, serials, etc. (beginning in 1929) in the field of cultural anthropology, economics, history, human geography, political science, sociology, and statistics. Seven committees of American scholars, one in each of these fields, have been at work for six months preparing a comprehensive scheme of classification which represents the best current opinion on content and organization of the subject matter of the social sciences. Over eight hundred scholars from the United States and other nations have agreed to collaborate as abstractors.

Social Science Abstracts is designed to provide a monthly service which will begin with the issue of March, 1929. At the outset not more than 15,000 abstracts a year will be printed. The abstracts will vary in length from the mere citation of a title in less important articles to several hundred words in the case of important contributions printed in inaccessible journals or in the more remote foreign languages. In general, the average length of an abstract will be 150 words. Abstracts will be cross-referenced in each issue and elaborate annual indexes will be published.

Periodicals of all languages will be searched for material of importance, thus giving the service a world-wide character. A partial list already includes the titles of several thousand periodicals in twenty-two languages as follows: 361 journals in human geography, 77 in cultural anthropology, 600 in history, 700 in economics and statistics, 637 in political science, and 332 in sociology, published in Arabic, Bulgarian, Chinese, Danish, Dutch, English, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Hebrew, Italian, Japanese, Jugo-Slav, Magyar, Norwegian, Polish, Portuguese, Rumanian, Russian, Spanish, and Swedish. These periodicals, and many more, will be regularly searched for important contributions. Arrangements are being made for collaboration with representative scholars and research institutes in all foreign countries where scientific work is carried on. *Social Science Abstracts* is coöperating with the International Economic Bibliography of the League of Nations. The ultimate objective is to furnish a comprehensive summary of scientific contributions in the social sciences.

To undertake this immense task, a huge editorial organization has been built up consisting of the Board of Directors of Social Science Abstracts, Incorporated, a central editorial staff of eight full-time specialists, with a secretarial staff, twenty-seven foreign editors, one hundred twelve consulting editors, and over eight hundred abstractors from all parts of the world.

The first issue of March, 1929, is now in the press and contains 781 abstracts. The April issue will contain 900 abstracts, and so on.

A subvention has been provided which assures continuity of service. *Social Science Abstracts* will be published under the auspices of the Social Science Research Council of the United States.

The subscription rate is \$6.00 per annum, including the annual indexes. Editorial offices are located at Columbia University, 611 Fayerweather Hall, and all communications should be sent to the editor at this address.

A STUDY IN CONTEMPORARY AMERICAN CULTURE

Robert S. and Helen Merrell Lynd have completed a study of a community which they call *Middletown*,¹ which embodies an attempt "to study synchronously the interwoven trends that are the life of a small American city." It employs the method of cultural anthropology in viewing all the behavior of people in this community as falling under one or another of six main activities: Getting a Living, Making a Home, Training the Young, Using Leisure, Engaging in Religious Practices, Engaging in Community Activities. The trends of changes in each of these segments of the city's life during the last thirty-five years, the period of its industrialization, were studied in their interrelationships. The population was broken up into two sections, the business class and the working class. The field staff aimed to maintain as detached and objective an approach as possible while at the same time participating to the full in the local life. In addition to such participation and patient observation, other techniques used were examination of documentary material, compilation of statistics, interviews, case studies, and questionnaires. A staff sent out under a research foundation lived in the city a year and a half sharing and observing its life.

¹Published under the caption *Middletown A Study in Contemporary American Culture*, by Harcourt Brace and Company.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Child in America, by WILLIAM I. THOMAS and DOROTHY SWAINE THOMAS. New York: Alfred Knopf, 1928. xxxii + 583 pages.

The Child in America is a study of current programs for dealing with behavior maladjustments. Part I presents an interesting discussion, illustrated by case materials, of the common varieties of maladjustment. Part II deals with social programs for readjustment—as practised by courts, correctional institutions, schools, and social agencies. Part III presents the results of recent research into the causes of behavior maladjustments—as approached from the standpoint of psychometrics, psychiatry, physiology, personality testing, and sociology. There is also an interesting and critical chapter on the methodology of behavior research.

The schools are becoming increasingly aware of their responsibility for the personalities and social adjustment of their pupils. But their procedure in handling maladjustments is only beginning to rise above the level of common sense—indeed, in occasional instances remains on the level of magic. Schoolmen will find in *The Child in America* a body of scientific fact with respect to the behavior difficulties of the school child—much of it here made available for the first time to the general reader—that will enable them to deal with such problems much more intelligently and effectively. Schoolmen will find the chapters dealing with character education, parent education, visiting teaching and child guidance clinics particularly interesting and relevant to their problems. *The Child in America* should be on the library shelf of every progressive public school.

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH

Educational Sociology for Beginners, by DAVID SNEDDEN. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1928, v + 636 pages.

The most prolific writer in the field of educational sociology is the author of this text. He states in the foreword that "The present volume is designed for *beginners* in the study of education. These are as yet but slightly concerned with problems of policy making for schools. They need to obtain, first, appreciative insights into the findings of modern sociology." Especially can they profit, it is believed, from varied studies of "the sociologies of American life"—family life, economic life, political life, cultural life, and the like. Hence nearly half of this volume is devoted to the interpretation of these background "sociologies."

In his suggestions to instructors he states that "*Educational Sociology for Beginners* is not designed as a text to be memorized or as a source of exercises for purposes of intellectual drills. Primarily the chapters of this book should enrich and multiply *appreciations* of the social world in which we live and which schools of all kinds should serve. Hence methods of appreciational instruction should be used generally, and especially throughout the first twenty chapters."

These statements indicate the purpose of the volume and in general the plan for its use. The book presents a discussion of almost every topic relating to education that has a sociological bearing. The weakness of the book from the point of view of the reviewer is that the approach to the study of educational problems is not a scientific approach but rather a statement about education in terms of common observation. Moreover, the style is characterized by excessive verbiage and the bearing of the statement is not always clear. However, the book provides a body of valuable reference material and will no doubt be widely used as a reference book in courses in educational sociology. This criticism ought not to imply that the author has done a bad job in writing this text, for the difficulty of preparing an introductory text in educational sociology is almost insurmountable. No text that has so far appeared seems to be satisfactory as an introductory text. Perhaps the writing of a text will have to be done by some of the younger men in the field who have had modern training in the best sociological technique and that we may expect most of the books to have the philosophical rather than the scientific approach. This book is a valuable addition to those books which use the older approach to a study of educational problems.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

Efficiency in Vocational Education in Agriculture, by G. A. SCHMIDT. New York: The Century Company, 1928, 314 pages.

This book is one which maintains the high standard which has been set by the Century Vocational Series edited by Charles A. Prosser. The author has taken the sixteen principles which were listed by Prosser and Allen in their volume, *Vocational Education in a Democracy*, and has written a chapter around each showing wherein these principles can be applied and are being applied in agricultural vocational education. He has done an excellent job in this respect, and in addition has given an introductory chapter about the occupation of farming itself which is decidedly worth while. His second chapter deals with the place of agriculture in the curriculum, and here too the author has a fine chapter. The third chapter gives a brief résumé of the philosophy underlying all vocational training, with the objective of such training courses and the procedure to be followed in attaining these objectives. Then follow the aforementioned sixteen chapters dealing with the principles, and the

concluding chapter discusses methods of measuring training programs in vocational agriculture.

It was to be expected that sooner or later some authority in the field would write a book around a group of generally acceptable principles, and Schmidt has done this in a highly commendable fashion. In fact, his technique is one which might very well be used for the skeleton of a book in any field of vocational education, and before long such a technique will most likely be adopted in other fields. It is to be hoped that future writers who use Schmidt's scheme will also use the enjoyable style and lucid exposition of this author. Rarely does one find a book over which one can become so enthusiastic.

RALPH E. PICKETT

Cultural Change, by F. STUART CHAPIN. New York: Century Company, 1928, xx + 448 pages.

The science of sociology at the present time is in need of scientific research and experiment to provide data from which verifiable conclusions may be warranted. In spite of the healthy sign of increased research we are still woefully lacking in data. Therefore it is with genuine interest that every student of the science of sociology welcomes a book or study that contributes to the facts or theories in the social sciences.

No book that has come to our desk in recent years is more valuable, as a contribution of the kind just outlined, than the one under review. Mr. Chapin has in his usual manner compiled a body of data relating to cultural change and has given it interpretation. He has developed a number of theories from these data that will be of significance to the student in further research into this aspect of the science. The fundamental thesis of the book is that culture is cumulative and he proves his case, at least to the satisfaction of the reviewer.

The value of the book, however, does not lie wholly in the data or the theories developed, but equally in the technique used in the study. This book illustrates how much valuable historical data is now available for historical research if the student of the social sciences is willing to bring to its interpretation adequate scholarship and painstaking effort. The author of *Cultural Change* shows us the value of historical data in the development of the science of sociology.

This book should be read by every educator and sociologist, and particularly by every educator. The book is more valuable for the educational sociologist than most of the books appearing under the title of educational sociology. Moreover, the material is logically developed, clearly presented, and the format excellent.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

The Unmarried Mother and Her Child, by MABEL HIGGINS MATTINGLY. Cleveland, Ohio: School of Applied Social Sciences, Western Reserve University, 1928, 80 pages.

The subtitle of Miss Mattingly's monograph is, "A Fact-Finding Study of Fifty-Three Cases of Unmarried Mothers Who Kept Their Children." And some illuminating facts were indeed found about cases which social agencies had stamped "finis" as soon as some disposition had been made of the children concerned. Unfortunately, case histories of most of the mothers studied are not given; five or six are presented to indicate the type of record kept.

Miss Mattingly has investigated the occupations of the girls and men involved in her study, the extent of their schooling, the adjustments made by the social agencies handling the cases, the place in such adjustments of courts of law, and the nature—the degree of success—of the personal adjustments made by the mothers after the agencies had dropped their cases. In her conclusions, she has been properly conservative, avoiding the temptation to generalize about all unmarried mothers who have kept their children and pointing out that her conclusions pertain only to the fifty-three cases she has studied. Outstanding among her conclusions are these two: first, that mere instruction in matters of sex will not curb the tendency to establish illicit sex contacts, but that "training of sturdy, moral character" may help a great deal, second, that social agencies may heighten the effectiveness of their work; (a) by employing expertly trained workers for the more delicate cases (i e., illegitimacy), and (b) by conducting periodic "social audits" preliminary to following up those cases which may seem to warrant following.

IRVING ASTRACHAN

Character Education in the Junior High School, by ELVIN H. FISHBACK. New York: The D. C. Heath and Company, 1928, 190 pages.

One of the recent movements in education has been the revival of interest in a new program of character education. The social view of education in a democracy has undoubtedly been the contributory cause of the renewed interest in this much neglected aspect of our educational practice. The author of this book is one of the pioneers in attempting to work out a scheme for such training. His effort lies in the field of junior-high-school practice. The author of this book is confronted with the dilemma of the two schools of thought and practice in this field; namely, the ideo-motor school which believes and practices the direct method of teaching character values or traits; and the other, the indirect school, which holds that character in its fundamental essence and quality

is the marginal or resultant product of social experience. The reviewer believes the author has made a fair straddle, and this is a beginning. The book approaches the problem from the standpoint of the "need" as a result of the complex "social changes" affecting youth. This is followed by his "objectives" of character education with a chapter designated "Moral Personality" (if there be such which may be isolated). The next part of the book is devoted to a traditional discussion of "Extracurricular Activities," with the "Curricular Activities" held to be the strongest force for character building as a subsequent chapter. Curricular and extracurricular are not defined. One is left in the dark as to why the distinction is made. The reviewer questions the value of much of the traditional curricular activities discussed, for instance, the treatment of mathematics (page 65) is still clouded by the thinking and practice of formal discipline. Many other sections show the same tendency. The other chapters treat of the "Personality of the Teacher," "School Discipline," "The Direct Method of Character Training," and "The Expected Outcomes." The book closes with a course of study in character education. The reviewer fears that the proposed course of study as outlined is of the didactic type, and that the traditionally trained teacher would find it a ready subject for "moralizing." The author is to be commended on the beginning that he has made, and that the book is worthy of a place in the library of the junior-high-school administrator and teacher.

B. F. STALCUP

Public Education in Modern Europe, by A. E. MEYER. New York: The Avon Press, 1928, 262 pages.

Extensive interest is being manifested in European education since the war. There have been developing new emphases and new points of view. The countries of Europe have been particularly active in developing experimental trends, some of which have been widely heralded as important contributions to the solution of modern educational problems. Dr. Meyer in his *Public Education in Modern Europe* does not attempt to detail the development of the experimental schools but rather to present an objective, fair, and impartial picture of modern education as it exists today in the leading European countries. No one can read this book without feeling that the author has accomplished his purpose. Furthermore, for the average reader this book is indispensable in giving a critical summary of what is taking place. It ought to be read by every student of postwar education. A word must be said about the attractiveness of the volume itself, because its artistic appearance adds to the pleasure in reading the book.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

The Ways of Behaviorism, by JOHN B. WATSON. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1928, 143 pages.

In the blurb carried on the jacket Watson is quoted as referring to "this, the final volume I shall ever write upon behaviorism." To which many will say "Amen"! The book, a collection of popular articles that have appeared from time to time in *Harper's Magazine*, is merely another restatement of Watson's position. It is a dogmatic statement. It contains no new data.

The book is written in Watson's usual fresh, vigorous, interesting style. It is frankly addressed to the layman. While it contains little of interest to educators, it cannot fail to further popular interest in the scientific study of behavior. The popularization of psychology, to which Watson has contributed so largely, is undoubtedly one of the major movements in modern thought.

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

The National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology held its sixth regular December meeting in connection with the meetings of the American Sociological Society. Two program meetings were held in addition to the luncheon meeting. Since the general theme of the larger society's meetings was "Rural Sociology," the Educational Sociology Society had two meetings concerned with the relation of educational sociology to rural life.

The general topic of the meeting on December 27 was "Sociology and Rural Education." A paper was given by Professor Dwight S. Sander-son of Cornell University on the "Rural Community as a Unit for Rural Administration" and the discussion on it was led by Professor A. W. Hayes of Marshall College. The second paper was on "Adaptation of Educational Administration to Rural Communities" given by Professor George A. Works of the University of Chicago.

The luncheon meeting was presided over by Professor Ellsworth Faris of the University of Chicago, vice president of the Society. Its general topic was "Rural Sociology in Educational Problems." Professor D. H. Kulp II, of Teachers College, Columbia University, president of the Society, gave the annual address, which was on "Problems of Rural Education Demanding Sociological Research." This was followed by a paper by Dr. Edmund DeS Brunner, of the Institute of Social and Religious Research, on "Some Investigations into Rural Life with Curriculum Implications."

At the meeting on December 28, "Research Projects" was the general topic and reports of research were made by Professor F. R. Clow of Wisconsin State Teachers College at Oshkosh, on "A Child's Educators. A study of the Educative Effects of Non-School Agencies"; by Harvey D. Douglass, Fowlerville (Michigan) Public Schools, on "The Conditioning Factors in the Work of High-School Pupils," and by Professor Frank W. Blackmar, University of Kansas, on "Socializing of the American Indian."

These papers are to be published in various periodicals and reprints sent to the members of the Society.

The increasing and widespread interest in the field of educational sociology was indicated by the growth in membership and its distribution throughout the country. The secretary of the Society, Professor George B. Neumann of State Teachers College at Buffalo, reported that the membership numbered 96. Since those meetings additions have brought the total up to 106, these members being located in twenty-three States and the District of Columbia. The highest previous membership was 62.

The first yearbook of the Society, "Bibliographies of Educational Sociology," was issued during the past year, having been prepared by a committee under the chairmanship of Professor F. R. Clow of Wisconsin State Teachers College at Oshkosh. It has had an encouraging sale, not only among normal schools, colleges, and universities, but among the large number of public libraries scattered throughout the country. Orders have also been filled from Germany and Japan, showing an international interest in the field of educational sociology.

The second yearbook of the Society on "Objectives in Education" has been prepared by a committee under the chairmanship of Professor David Snedden of Teachers College, Columbia University, and will be the basis for a round-table discussion at the Cleveland meetings of the Society in February.

Professor William Fielding Ogburn of the University of Chicago was elected president of the American Sociological Society at the closing session of its annual convention in the Congress Hotel.

The new president came to Chicago from Columbia University in 1926. During the war he made studies in the cost of living for the United States labor bureau. He is a member of the social science research council and chairman of its committee on problems and policies, which reviews projects of research in the entire field of social sciences.

Professor E. W. Burgess of the University of Chicago was reelected secretary-treasurer and three of the six members of the new executive committee are Chicagoans or Evanstonians—Thomas D. Elliott of Northwestern, and Mrs. W. F. Dummer and Ellsworth Faris of the University of Chicago.

The first issue of *Metropolitan Business Education*, which is the new publication of the Commercial Education Association of New York and vicinity, appeared in December, 1928. The editor is Mr. John V. Walsh, head of the department of shorthand and typewriting of Morris High School of New York City. He has associated with him a number of individuals whose names are familiar to the students of commercial education. This new enterprise is heartily welcomed by the staff of THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY.

Mr. John R. Patterson, lecturer in education in New York University, will return to the University of Missouri for the third summer session, where he teaches two graduate courses in School Administration. Mr. Patterson was formerly superintendent of schools at Athens, Ohio, and is the retiring president of the Ohio State Teachers Association.

Professor John Oscar Creager, new dean of the School of Education of the University of Arkansas, will return to the department of college administration and teaching of the School of Education of New York University. Professor Creager was formerly head of this department before going to Arkansas. He gives courses in the summer session and

his many friends in New York will be pleased on his decision to come East again.

Mr. A. M. Cortright of Middletown, New York, succeeds his father as superintendent of schools in the third district of Orange County, New York. Mr. Cortright received his bachelor's degree from the School of Education of New York University.

Dean Addison Hubbard of the University of North Carolina in the December (1928) issue of the *Outlook* wrote a most commanding article on "Our Truant Professors" in our colleges and universities. A digest of this article may be found in the February issue of the *Readers' Digest*, a monthly publication containing digests of the outstanding articles of leading American periodicals. Dean Hubbard lists the three major "enemies" of the good teacher in the college or university as: (a) too heavy administrative duties, (b) too much attention given to extracurricular activities; and (c) too much of the teacher's time devoted to research. The Dean is not protesting against these activities as such, but because they are taking the time and energy from the "good teacher." This article is worthy of the careful reading of every friend of better teaching.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

President A. O. Bowden of New Mexico State Teachers College is a graduate of the University of Kentucky with an A.B. degree. President Bowden later received his A.M. from Harvard, besides doing extensive graduate work in the University of Chicago and Columbia University. President Bowden has had considerable experience as principal and superintendent of schools in Kentucky, Tennessee, and Montana. He formerly held a professorship of education and philosophy at Baylor College before coming to his present position, in which he has been since 1922.


Professor Philip W. L. Cox is professor of secondary education, School of Education, New York University. Professor Cox received his A.B. and A.M. degrees from Harvard, and Ph.D. from Columbia. He has been tutor, submaster, principal, and superintendent in Massachusetts, and superintendent at Solvay, N. Y. He was an instructor at Harris Teachers College, organized Ben Blewett Junior High School, St. Louis, and was principal of the High School of the Lincoln School of Teachers College before coming to New York University. He is the author of *Curriculum Adjustment in Secondary School* and *Creative Social Control*.

Henry Harap was graduated from the College of the City of New York in 1916, after which he taught in the public and private schools of New York. In 1918 he became associated with the Hudson Guild, at the same time pursuing graduate studies at Columbia University. At Hudson Guild, he was for four successive summers the director of the Summer Play School, a pioneer attempt to provide a program of education for city children during vacation months. In 1923, after completing the requirements for the doctorate at Columbia University, he became the director of Antioch School and Associate Professor of Education at Antioch College. In 1924 he joined the staff of the Cleveland School of Education. The same year the Macmillan Company published his *The Education of the Consumer*. In the summer of 1925 he was a special lecturer on curriculum construction at Colorado State Teachers College. In 1927 the Macmillan Company published his *Education and Economic Life*, an informal treatment and extension of his earlier work. The next year he wrote *The Technique of Curriculum Making*, a Macmillan publication. He is now associate professor of education in the recently reorganized School of Education of Western Reserve University. He has contributed from time to time to educational and other journals.

Mr. George A. Retan, director of the training school of Mansfield State Teachers College, Mansfield, Pennsylvania, received his B.F. degree from the Pennsylvania State Forest School and his A.M. from New York University. Mr. Retan studied during the year 1910-1911

in Germany. He has had several years of public-school experience before entering his present work in 1926. He is joint author of Retan and Ross, *Outlines for Observation in Teacher Training Practice and Demonstration Schools*.

Stephen G. Rich is a native of New York State. His A.B. degree was secured at New York University; his A.M. at Cornell; and his Ph.D at New York University. Dr. Rich has had considerable experience as teacher and administrator in the schools of West Virginia and the Union of South Africa. He was sometime supervising principal of the schools at Essex Fells, New Jersey. He gave up teaching for business and is now a representative of one of the larger publishing houses.



FORTHCOMING ARTICLES

Handedness, by Ira M. Gast.

The Jews: Race or Conglomerate, by Stephen G. Rich

The Socially Efficient Community, by David Snedden.

Social Life of the Child of Junior-High-School Age, by Harvey
D. Douglass.

Need for Public Education in Advertisement Response, by Paul
Maxwell.

Reconstruction of Curricula (series of three articles), by David
Snedden.

Some Reflections Upon the Field of Educational Sociology, by
Richard Aspinall.

Commercial-Teacher-Training Curricula, by Herbert A. Tonne.

Administrative Management of Teachers in the Elementary
Schools of the Roman Catholic Church in Chicago, by Robert
E. O'Brien.

Relations Between the Public and Catholic Schools of Chicago,
by Robert E. O'Brien.

Content and Method in Educational Sociology in Normal
Schools and Teachers Colleges, by Stephen G. Clement.

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY is as essential to the student of social problems as the latest reports of law enactments are to the student of legal problems. Each is necessary in its respective field.

THE JOURNAL endeavors to cover the current digest of the newest writings in educational sociology. Among its outstanding contributors are included: Prof. Walter R. Smith, University of Kansas; Prof. David Snedden, Teachers College; Prof. Ross L. Finney, University of Minnesota; Asst. Prof. Frederic M. Thrasher, School of Education, New York University; Prof. George S. Counts, International Institute of Teachers College; Prof. E. S. Bogardus, University of Southern California; Asst. Prof. Harvey W. Zorbaugh, School of Education, New York University; Prof. Charles E. Peters, Penn State College.

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No. 8

EDITORIAL

The meetings of educational and scientific conferences, together with the multiplicity of topics discussed, is bewildering. It is difficult even to mention all of the conferences that meet and it is beyond possibility for an editor to give attention to all of them. There are, however, two conferences which deserve mentioning; namely, the Orthopsychiatrists and the Department of Superintendence. Each of these represents an outstanding field of interest and both were disappointing in their failure to strike a new note of emphasis. As a matter of fact, the greatest value from each came from meeting in the lobby persons from whom you got glimpses of outstanding work which is taking place in different parts of the country. It is remarkable that very little of this comes to the surface in the speeches and presentations. It is, moreover, astonishing that with so much scientific work going on, programs could be made up without discovering it. We have in our hands a report of the meeting of the psychiatrists under the title "The Orthopsychiatrists Meet and Behave" and it so aptly describes not only this meeting but the character of the meeting at Cleveland that we quote the following:

"A conference is, after all, a mode of behaving. This particular conference shows certain fortunate trends in development, as witness its inclusion of a variety of viewpoints; its tendency towards the use of statistical data; its recognition, by frequent reference to the need for understanding the whole family of the problem child, of the force of group interplay in behavior adaptations; the accent given to environmental conditioning by the paper on juvenile delinquency. Probably the specialist in behavior study never sees behavior without wishing to improve it. One wishes, for instance, that several of the papers had not seemed insignificant as contributions to our understanding, but perhaps that can be charged somewhat to the selection of isolated factors in behavior when there is no understanding of it except as a total, integrated thing. One wishes there was not a glib readiness to make sweeping statements on meager fact. One sighs for more humility about our discoveries in the field of the emotions. One hopes for the use by the psychiatrist of scientific control and a growing unwillingness on his part to say anything that is based solely on his contacts with spectacular deviations from all that is normal. It must not be thought that conference behavior is confined to the speakers and their attentive listeners. Equal importance attaches to behavior in the crowded, smoke-filled lobby where 'buttonholing' is a high art. There social contacts are promoted, plans discussed, ideas fought over, and all the handsome chimeras of the future enthusiastically dreamed."

A PROGRAM OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

E GEORGE PAYNE

Educational sociology is one of the newer subjects to bid for a place in the college and university programs of instruction and it is worth while examining present practice to determine the existing status for purposes of further development and direction. It is hoped that this discussion will call forth considerable response, because through discussion lies the greatest hope for the future of the science, and through discussion we may avoid numerous mistakes that might otherwise occur.

We might survey the accomplishments up to the present time but that is unnecessary since Lee¹ has presented the history and present status of educational sociology and Zorbaugh² has indicated the contributions and points of view held by the different writers in the field. Moreover, THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY has devoted many articles and editorials to the various aspects of the development of educational sociology as a science. Our purpose in this article is to present a critical analysis of the offerings, the plan and purposes of the department, and the projects under way in one institution—the School of Education of New York University.

The department of educational sociology serves two functions in the School of Education; namely, it serves all of the fields of education and provides special training for specific positions. The purpose of the first of these functions is to give to the students specializing in all other fields of service an appreciation of the sociological approach to groups in the development of the individual and to show

¹Harvey Lee, *The Status of Educational Sociology in Normal Schools, Teachers Colleges, and Universities*, New York University Press Book Store, New York, December, 1926.

²Harvey Zorbaugh, "Topical Summaries of Current Literature: Educational Sociology," *The American Journal of Sociology*, XXIII, 3, November, 1927, pp. 444-451.

how and to what extent the success of school instruction depends upon social influence. The introductory course serves these functions primarily

Under the second of the general functions the department serves several specific purposes. It contributes largely to the training of visiting teachers and clinicians. It provides training in methods of studying the social backgrounds of the school child and the organization of the community in relation to the problems of the school and its administration with a view to giving teachers and administrators techniques for determining the social influences which thwart or reinforce educational procedures. It gives the subject matter and point of view for teachers of sociology in normal schools, teachers colleges, and university schools of education. It offers advanced courses for administrators, health workers, and others to equip them for dealing with the complex social problems which arise in connection with the educational process, and finally in cooperation with the New York School of Social Work provides opportunities for social workers to receive adequate training and at the same time secure their university degrees. Furthermore, in cooperation with other departments and with the department of sociology in the Graduate School, it trains teachers of sociology for colleges and universities.

The department seeks to realize its purposes through its teaching program and its research and publication. Among these the teaching function ranks first. The number of persons studying in the department makes this an important task. The statistics of the department to date are of interest in this connection.

1922-1923.	54 students
1923-1924	156 students
1924-1925.	543 students
1925-1926	952 students
1926-1927..	1200 students
1927-1928..	1391 students

To provide courses to supply the demands of these students who are both graduates and undergraduates the following program of courses is offered:

Introduction to Educational Sociology
Education in Health
Behavior Disorders as a Social Problem
The Nature and Needs of the Child in the Social Life
The Health and Growth of School Children
The Sociological Foundations of Learning and Teaching
The Social Background of the School Child
The Professional Status of the Teacher
Social Adjustment of Atypical Children
The Visiting Teacher
Sociological Determination of the Curriculum
Education as Social Control
Content and Method of Educational Sociology in Normal Schools
Community Organization
An Introduction to Social Research
Personality and Social Adjustment
The Statistical Study of Social Behavior
Seminar in Problems of Educational Sociology
Seminar in Clinical Practice
Seminar in Boys' Club Study
Social Analysis
Social Pathology and Education
The Social Role of the Teacher, and other courses listed from time to time.

The second important function is research and we have under way a number of significant projects, the most important of which is the Boys' Club Study under the direction of Frederic M. Thrasher. The Boys' Club Study, which was made possible by a grant of \$36,000 from the Bureau of Social Hygiene and supplementary amounts from other sources, has as its chief purpose the determination of the effect of a boys' club upon the boys and the problems of a local community in New York City. From an educational point of view the project is significant because it recognizes the importance of studying the processes of informal education being carried on by such a social agency as a boys' club, and also by the life of the street, and the other informal contacts

of the neighborhood and community. An attempt will be made in this study to observe the relations between the processes of informal education and school programs and problems in the district. There is an intimate relationship between the boys' club program in this area and school procedures since a number of grades are employing the boys' club facilities for physical education and clinical examination.

Another phase of the Boys' Club Study which is of particular interest to education is that which takes up the relationships which may be discoverable between school facts such as intelligence quotients, achievement ratings, attendance, retardation, elimination, misconduct, vocational guidance, and so forth, and such social backgrounds of the school child as those of family life, housing, nationality heritages, employment, street and gang activities, private, public and commercialized recreation, religious participation, and so on.

This study provides a number of interesting projects for theses dealing both with informal and formal aspects of education in a given community. It also affords an opportunity for training in methods of study which the teacher and school administrator may apply in their own schools and communities. Following these procedures in their own local situations enables the teacher to deal more intelligently with her problems by understanding the social backgrounds of the children in her classes, and assists the administrator in his task of formulating school procedure in the light of social influences and needs in his community.

The second project is the Social Behavior Clinic which will make the largest contribution of the department in cooperation with the New York School of Social Work in the training of visiting teachers and social workers. The double function here is involved in that the primary problem is that of research but incidental to the research problem is that of the training of persons for the types of service indicated.

This aspect of research and training is made necessary because the schools are becoming increasingly aware of a new group of educational problems presented by the misfits of society. The past generation has been a period of rapid and far-reaching change. Scientific inventions, multiplying in amazing variety, have increased the complexity of stimulation the individual must experience, the tempo of life, and the demands of living. The fact of measurable individual differences of ability has appeared in advance of adequate provision for what it implies. The country as a whole has passed through a period of urbanization, and is faced by the necessity of readjusting to altered conditions of life. Community life is disintegrating. The family, deprived consecutively of one after another of its functions, has almost relinquished its hold on its members. No other agency has as yet assumed the responsibilities the family has laid down or systematically attempted to strengthen the family for the adequate performance of duties it has always assumed. Urbanization and immigration have broken up our homogeneous culture, and the person is confronted with a variety of conflicting definitions of behavior and ideals of life. It is a fact of no little significance that in this period of rapid change we have become aware of our emotional lives—a fact reflected in our expanding language about the emotions and in our tendency to popularize our meager knowledge of this field because of its intrinsic interest for all men. In the wake of these changes inevitably has followed a variety of maladjustments—some personalities have broken under strain, others have proved inadequate, still others have become involved in conflicts that have issued in emotional disturbances or delinquent behavior.

These misfit personalities constitute an increasingly serious social problem. Society's attempts to deal with them—through courts, clinics, institutions, and social agencies—have shown the possibilities of adult reeducation to be lim-

ited. However, these cases almost invariably yield a long history of childhood behavior difficulties. The most effective means of dealing with adult maladjustment is proving to be a program for the intelligent handling of the problems of childhood. Society, in casting about for a suitable agency to invest with this responsibility, has tended more and more to make the school the fulcrum in the whole program for prevention and readjustment. Throughout the country the schools are beginning to look upon the adjustment of behavior difficulties as one of their primary functions. The diagnosis and treatment of behavior difficulties requires highly specialized knowledges and techniques which are not and can not be included in the training of the classroom teacher. Consequently, as the schools undertake the adjustment of behavior difficulties, there arises a demand for two types of persons with specialized training, the clinician and the visiting teacher.

The School of Education through its affiliation with the New York School of Social Work and through the department of educational sociology with its Social Behavior Clinic affords the opportunity for such training, combining theory and demonstrations with supervised experience in visiting teaching and in the clinical diagnosis and treatment of problem children. The work leading to qualification either as a visiting teacher or as a clinician may be begun by undergraduates, but the greater part of the training is of necessity on the graduate level, and it is distinctly advantageous to approach this training with a background of actual teaching experience.

The Visiting Teacher. The visiting teacher is a specialist in the study of home backgrounds. Through teaching experience, she acquires understanding of the school situation, and through training and field experience, understanding of the home. Her function is to ply between these two institutions, establishing the *rapprochement* necessary for the

adjustment of the problems of school children. Her specialized knowledge must include interviewing, taking and interpreting family histories, using community social agencies wherever necessary, and contributing to the clinical treatment of difficult cases an adequate understanding of the families visited. In addition to this emphasis in her training, she must have thorough orientation in types of behavior, in the salient characteristics of exceptional children, in tests and measurements, and in social research.

The Clinician. The clinician is a specialist trained in the analysis and readjustment of behavior disorders. In addition to the training already outlined for the visiting teacher, he must acquire a considerable experience in clinical practice—administering tests, interviewing, evaluating the array of data with reference to a specific case, conducting staff conferences, prescribing treatment, and supervising the rehabilitation of the individual problem in question. His knowledge of behavior aberrations must be supplemented by specialized knowledge in such relevant fields as psychotherapy, neurology, endocrinology, statistics, the psychology of school subjects, and community research.

The third project of the department is that of publication. The effort is made to stimulate contributions in the field of research and the publications of the results. These publications are projected in the form of books, monographs, and special research studies and particularly through *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY*. *THE JOURNAL* was originated for the purpose of representing the field of educational sociology in the United States. Its editorial board is selected from the leading universities of the country and it proposes to represent the work of those universities in so far as they are making research contributions. Inevitably *THE JOURNAL* has given in the past and will give in the future emphasis to the contributions made by the department. In the editorial columns the point of view of the department will be frankly represented.

THE SOCIALLY EFFICIENT COMMUNITY¹

DAVID SNEDDEN

For some years to come it can hardly be doubted that the leading educators will expect educational sociology to make its most extended and serviceable contributions in helping solve problems of curriculum reconstruction and adaptation—and especially in providing realistic answers to Herbert Spencer's old question, "What knowledge is most worth?"

But if sociological science is to be extensively drawn upon to that end it must evolve and clarify standards of *social values*. Bertrand Russell writes on "Education and the Good Life." Sociology, if it is to make helpful contributions to educational science, must answer endless questions as to what is "the good community life." The writer submits, herewith, for collective criticism some preliminary analyses prepared for a class of mature students.

A. The reader, unless exceptionally immature or poorly informed, already knows in general ways and can abundantly illustrate these facts:

1. That "a community" embraces all the persons living and more or less coöperating in a given area, and that, therefore, we can have neighborhood rural communities, neighborhood village or urban communities, county communities, city or municipal communities, provincial or state communities, national and imperial communities, and even a "world community."

- 2 That in any one of these communities social efficiency or superior well-being is dependent on many factors—natural resources, heredity of the human beings, their social inheritance of inventions, customs, literature, etc.; and effective transmission of this social inheritance to each oncoming generation (education and all other aids to learning).

¹Portions of this paper appear in the author's *Educational Sociology for Beginners* (Macmillan) and are reproduced with the permission of the Macmillan Company

3. That the effective transmission of the social inheritance as it would be revealed at any moment by a cross-section study of a socially efficient community has involved much and many kinds of the *specializations* which make for *team* formations.

4. That such specialization is most visible and perhaps is of necessity carried farthest in the field of *economic production*—or in the self-supporting vocations which men and women follow.

5. But that in fact such specializations actually take place much more extensively in fields of *civic behaviors* and *cultural utilizations*, at least where persons from thirty to seventy years of age are concerned than our preparatory educational programs would seem to imply.

6. That while educators and other endemic workers, because of difficulties of marshalling the variabilities of men and of team-work requirements in communities are prone to postulate uniformities of desirable traits in "citizens" generally, they nevertheless realize, when confronted by realistic "case situations," that "optimum parts or rôles," vocationally, civically, or culturally for Smith, Brown, and Jones will vary greatly, partly because of their own "original-nature" differences, their environmentally developed or acquired differences, and especially because of the unlike rôles or opportunities which their community can advantageously offer them.

B. A self-contained community can readily be conceived, though none completely such now exists on this globe. (A few centuries ago in outlying parts, and a few score centuries ago in central parts, communities often were wholly self-contained for long periods—perhaps centuries, until fleeing clans or expanding clans or peoples brought new accessions of social inheritance or otherwise changed conditions.) But a Switzerland, a New Zealand, or a Utah valley community nearly severed from outside influences

can even yet be imagined. Let us call it the province of Zond. It has abundant and varied natural resources. Its people are a "good stock." It has already assimilated much of the social inheritance which we call Christian, democratic civilization—moralities, sciences, arts, mechanisms of government, fairly pure religious ideals, etc. On the basis of what eudemic programs can Zond conserve and advance its social efficiency? The following are submitted as probably sound and helpful hypotheses:

1. Still more than in the past will Zond emphasize distinctions in responsibilities between childhood and adulthood. Minors, defined as all persons under twenty years of age, will not be expected to follow *vocations* (except as some truly economic activities will be found very useful educationally), go to *war*, produce *coöperative government*, bear or rear *children*, codirect *research* (except, again, as found occasionally useful in education), or otherwise fill more than *getting ready* rôles so far as the productive, controlling, sustaining work of the community is concerned.

2. But from earliest years minors, as utilizors of the services of adults, will be trained steadily in superior utilizations—whether of food, clothing, books, fine arts, games, or of personal services, community laws and ordinances, and religious beliefs and aspirations.

3. Probably more years will be given to childhood for *unconstrained* bodily, mental, and social growth, due to free nonschool play of the wholesome environmental influences than at present. Perhaps no school attendance until nine or ten where homes are fairly good will be expected.

4. Probably to assure sound physical, moral, and social fiber, all minors as part of education will supplement abundant physical play at ages nine to twenty with fairly severe upbuilding *physical work* of primitive kinds—digging, walking, herding, chopping, carrying, building, guarding, plant-

ing—to extents of from one thousand to fifteen hundred hours per year.

5. All or nearly all young adult women will work at salaried or wage-earning vocations during premarriage years. For some decades yet these will strive for vocations that are "indoor," "light," "clean," "nice"—largely in response to masculine courtship demands for dainty femininity, unbegrimmed and wearied by arduous toil. But if the physically degenerative effects of such artificially light, nervous work (in factory, office, schoolroom, hospital, restaurant), should be discovered to make large proportions of poor or impotent mothers, morbidly invalid wives, etc., then fashions may so change (as they have often done in the past) as to place strong courtship premiums on the freely developed, muscular, thriving, health-radiating woman, made such by hard farm, forest, mine, or other "out-door" heavy work—and so the stock be saved from dry rot.

6. For fifteen to twenty years after marriage *women will make their vocations* the "rearing of children," combined with the maintenance of a home for husband and children—for progenitively sound families of from three to six children. Phases of child-care work additional to those already taken over from mothers by collective (commercial) agencies—spinning, weaving, grain grinding, shelter building, water providing, light bringing—will be delegated, as now in process—clothing making, sick care, toy making, meal supplying, heat providing, and police protecting. But child rearing as a mother's vocation will steadily expand in new responsibilities because of rising standards and use of technical knowledge. (It is assumed that "good home environment" will not need supplementing by nursery, kindergarten, or primary schools until nine or ten years of age)

7. *Vocational specialization* of adult workers will be expected steadily to increase. A very few men of high native

ability will be induced or permitted to become dentists, optometrists, teachers of Japanese, soil analysts, manufacturers of serums, or preachers of religious ideals. In the great factory for making shoes where machinery is so extensively employed will be found two hundred distinct vocations—a few for persons of exceptionally low endowments, and many for persons of somewhat less than median native intelligence or physique. A man or young woman in one of these operative specialties will no more expect to be competent to work in another without a period of training than a dentist would similarly expect to work as an optometrist.

8. No vocation, it is expected and assumed, can be entered upon without an intensive period of training—a few weeks in some cases, a few months in most cases, a couple or more years in a few cases. But no direct vocational training will commence until eighteen years of age—all earlier years having been devoted to natural growth, and to euthehic, spiritual, and civic educations. The community uses expert service to discover vocations optimum for qualities—of body size, intelligence, sex, social aspirations, special talents—of the oncoming generation.

9. Zond is a democratic self-governing commonwealth. It maintains as a fairly strong defensive force a citizen army, supported by a small body of full-time technical experts in charge of mechanized equipment—ships, airplanes, tractors, arsenals, fortifications, hospital supplies, etc. It expects all children to be trained from earliest years in useful conformities—respect for laws and public property, abstention from disorderly conduct, regard for public decencies. But it does not expect from minors under twenty, voting, vocational policing (but amateur policing for educative purposes is well organized and fostered), executive office holding, legislating. Nor does it encourage

minors to contribute to civic or political opinion making, except for amateur ends.

10. Throughout adult years Zond expects all adult members to be especially strong in conformist civic virtues—especially to the will of the majority as formally expressed in laws, ordinances, etc. But it keeps wide open channels for sects, parties, and other groups to educate towards collective formation of new laws, choice of new executives. Habitual or confirmed offenders, whether willful or because of natural defect, it painlessly destroys—not as punishment, but as “social surgery.”

11. On the other hand, Zond expects civic advance, dynamic political action, leadership, new thinking, not from all, but only from those exceptionally endowed, first with native foundations of intelligence, and, in addition, with less tangible qualities of social zeal, altruism, religiousness, good fellowship, etc.

12. In preparation for their rôles of useful participation in, and cooperative promotion of, the self-governing state, the prospective citizens of Zond are given especially strenuous civic education between ages fourteen and twenty. But such education varies greatly according to ascertained potentialities. Men of less than median intelligence are not trained to be emergency officers of the citizen's army, nor to be political opinion makers or expounders, nor to hold nonsalaried offices. Men and women of the highest tenth of intellectual endowment are given much special education towards one or two of the many potential forms of the nonvocational forms of service, of leadership essential to the political advance of the commonwealth. Here are recognized degrees of civic specialization not dreamed of in the educational systems of 1925.

13. Zond also moves steadily towards higher levels as a community cultured in euthenic spiritual matters—that is, utilizer's cultures, first in the more material things which

enrich life (foods, decorations, medicines, recreations of body), and second of the apparently nonutilitarian things which, under right education, men can in some measure be trained to appreciate and even care intensely for—good literature, music, and pictures, fine manners and social courtesies, graceful speech, uplifting human associations, the jewel-like findings of science, history, and philosophy

14. But here again Zond stands high because of extensive, even radical, recognition of needs for specialization, especially in amateur cultural mastery, but also in connoisseur appreciations. The high composite or community culture of Zond is due to the fact that where native powers make appreciation of Henry James, Conrad, and Danté easy to produce, good attainments in these are expected and aided. But where potentialities reached only as high as Harold Bell Wright and *Swiss Family Robinson* those are no less prepared for.

C. No local community is, of course, now more than partly self-contained. The world is a community for medical research. The United States obtains coffee, nitrates, and other products from South American regions and sends them manufactured products in exchange—thereby creating international communities of economic interest. But it is submitted that the foregoing principles apply in some degree in all small and large partially self-contained communities.

THE JEWS: RACE OR CONGLOMERATE

STEPHEN G. RICH

I

Throughout the literature of sociology, both as a pure science and in its educational application, there runs the trail of a tacitly agreed upon fact. This presumed fact is that the Jews are a "race" or a "nation." In this article the purpose is to examine this presumed fact and discover whether as sociologists we should accept and work upon it.

That the Jews, by and large, constitute a separate social group distinct from the adherents of the evangelical churches on the one hand and those of the Roman Catholic body on the other, is not for a moment to be denied. The question here raised is as to the nature of the group and the extent to which it includes all that are supposed to be members of it. Incidentally, it will be necessary to consider the validity of certain classifications and certain terms of general use in sociology in dealing with the Jews.

We may, in the first place, and as preliminary, take it for granted that actual religious belief is not the thread that binds together the Jews as a group. It is a matter of general knowledge that the majority of educated Jews in America today are actually believers in some refined or attenuated form of theism or deism, without other than sentimental adherence to the rites and customs of the Jewish church. The strength of the Jewish unit is obviously not in its church organization. Indeed, the difference between the orthodox and the reformed wings of the Jewish church is at least as great as that between the Roman Catholics and the Universalists. Despite this schism in religion, there is evident a distinctly greater cooperation between these two subdivisions than between either portion and any other religious body.

Observers of this fact have in the main attempted to explain it upon the basis of a "Jewish race." Apparently what is meant by this is that the Jews are a pure or nearly pure Semitic race, descended in the main from the Beni-Jeshurun, the people of the Old Testament, who were dispersed over the whole of the Roman Empire after the fall of Jerusalem in 70 A.D. These descendants of the Biblical Hebrews have maintained their integrity as a self-perpetuating group, losing members to other groups by religious conversion, intermarriage, etc., during all these centuries, but not incorporating any new elements into their own group. It is further asserted that the Jews of today have specific mental and physical peculiarities, inherited from and identical with those of their Biblical ancestors.

Such is the theory of the "Jewish race."

But the monumental work of scholarship by Jewish scholars, published in this country some twenty years ago, *The Jewish Encyclopedia*, contains evidence that indicates that the Jews are by no means a racial group today. In the articles dealing with conversion to Judaism, intermarriage, purity of race, and the like, are recorded such dilutions and admixtures as must give us reason to believe that the "Jewish race" is a convenient myth and nothing more. It is, if the evidence of *The Jewish Encyclopedia* be trustworthy, about on a par with the exaggerated "Nordic" propaganda that Stoddard and others have vexed the world with during the last decade.

Earliest of the dilutions recorded is the wholesale conversion to Judaism, about 450 A.D., of a South Russian or Tartar tribe, variously called Chozars or Khozars. Some fifty thousand persons appear to have been absorbed into the seven hundred and fifty thousand that then constituted the Jewish people. Here is a dilution of seven per cent at one stroke. There is also evidence in the *Encyclopedia* that Judaism was a missionary and proselyting faith

during the first four or five centuries of the Christian era. Of course we do not know how successful or how widespread this propaganda of the faith was; but we shall not err in the way of being too sanguine of its results if we set all the converts as equal to the numbers of the Khazars. We thus have 100,000 converts added to 750,000 previous Jews: fourteen per cent of non-Semitic, non-Hebrew material within the Jewish group.

It is definitely known that the bulk of the Jews of America today are by ancestry or by nativity derived from the former kingdom of Poland, into which they had migrated from Germany during eras of persecution. It is also known that for many centuries, approximately from 900 A.D. to 1500 A.D., the Jews of Germany lived in the main at peace with their Christian compatriots. The *Encyclopedia* bears evidence to the extent to which the peace existed by pointing out the existence of interdictions against intermarriage between Jews and Christians during this time. Previous to the Reformation repeated interdictions by bishops and archbishops against marriages of Jews to Christians are reported in fair number. It is not as though only a very occasional isolated interdiction were known. We have, moreover, records of Jewish interdictions against the practice of intermarriage from this same region and in this same time. A reasonable inference is that a noticeable amount of intermarriage went on, continuously, despite efforts of the unco' guid in both churches to stop it.

We have no reason to presume that this process of intermarriage was one-sided in its results. In the absence of evidence to the contrary, we shall be safe in presuming that it brought as many Germans into Judaism as it brought Jews into the Catholic church. Let us now examine the effects upon the racial make-up of the Jews of this process continuing through many centuries.

If one in every two hundred males in each generation of Jews married outside their church but brought up their children as Jews, we should have one half of one per cent non-Jewish blood added every thirty years. If we assume thirteen generations in four hundred years, we get six and one-half per cent of non-Jewish population incorporated into the Jews. This would run a little over one and one-half per cent of dilution per century. The ratio of one in two hundred is certainly small enough to satisfy the most carping critic. Four hundred years is less than the time that Jews are known to have lived at peace in Germany.

Reducing this dilution to one per cent per century, and extending it to all Europe from 800 to 1800 A.D., we have a dilution of the original Semitic stock by ten per cent. We have fourteen per cent of non-Hebrew population derived from the earlier proselytism: total non-Hebrew elements thus far, twenty-four per cent.

Anthropological study would indicate that this is rather too small than too large a figure. Among the peoples or races cognate to the ancient Hebrews, we never find blonde hair, blue eyes, or the "typically Teutonic" fair complexion. Red hair, characteristic of the Celts, appears in the Jews, but not among their presumed congeners. The geneticists have now been able to show definitely that color of hair, color of eye, and skin pigmentation, are not subject to adaptive change, but are strictly hereditary. There are certainly more than one fourth of blue-eyed or blonde or rufous Jews among both those from Germany and those from the Ukraine. Several studies are reported in Fishberg's book¹ that indicate thirty per cent blonde hair among Jews. We know that bloneness is a Mendelian recessive trait: therefore, thirty per cent of it indicates at least fifty per cent blonde ancestry.

¹M. Fishberg, *The Jews. A Study of Race and Environment*, New York, 1911

The question of skull form, if introduced, would make another item tending the same way, but it is unwise to introduce this point. Hrdlicka, in a paper the locus of which the writer cannot now locate, showed some years ago that the children of immigrants to America show a definite environmental effect in this physical feature.

Even a casual observer, once the prepossession of "Jewish race" is removed, cannot fail to note the extent to which the Jews of various countries resemble physically their Christian compatriots. Where the people are largely myopic, the Jews are myopic in about the same degree; where the people are tall and thin, the Jews are tall and thin; where the people are short and stocky, the Jews are short and stocky. Indeed, we find that American Jews of German ancestry often are our most perfect Teutonic types.

This cannot be explained away on any grounds of "assimilation" or any purely social basis. We are dealing with physical characteristics that are definitely known to be hereditary

As a matter of cold fact, it is our American unfamiliarity with the physical types of the Ukrainians, Roumanians, southern Poles, etc., that makes us imagine that the Jews are a distinctive "race." We do not know what these people look like; if we did, we should pick out the children of the recently arrived Jewish immigrants for what they are: genuine Ukrainian, Roumanian, or Polish types

II

It is apparent, from what has been said that the Jews are, like the Americans, a racial conglomerate. It now remains to consider them as a cultural or social group, since they are not an ethnic one.

At once we shall discover that the term "Jewish" has been annexed by a dominant majority, and has been taken to mean the folkways of this dominant majority. Since the starting of the religious persecutions in Russia in 1881, the

emigrant Jews from that empire have arrived in America in such numbers as to swamp utterly the Jewish Americans of this country. The influx of the huge numbers of Jewish persons who had to adjust themselves to American life had very marked effects upon the Jewish Americans. At first, since the newcomers were coreligionists, they were welcomed and aided. Then the Jewish Americans discovered that they were being considered as aliens themselves by their fellow Americans. They discovered that their compatriots had come to associate the word "Jew" with a newly arrived Ukrainian or Roumanian of peculiar customs and alien speech. In increasing numbers they are reacting to this widely accepted idea by accelerating the process of absorption into other churches which has been going on slowly, steadily, but surely, among the Jewish Americans. It is known that the old Jewish American—the descendant of the Jewish settlers at Newport, Charleston, and Philadelphia in Colonial times—is an increasingly rare bird; that he is found in the main and with the exception of two or three conspicuous figures outside the Jewish church, neither admitting nor asking allegiance to it. The Jewish Americans of German descent, whose ancestors arrived here along with the other Germans in the middle of the last century, have simply gone more speedily into this process.

The Jewish Americans are thus passing rapidly into the general body of the American people. Some marry into other churches; a few deliberately join other churches; and Christian Science provides a large number with an easy road out of association with the Jewish group. It may be convenient to arrange in order the steps of church allegiance by which a Jewish family normally progresses in its exit from Judaism in the United States.

1. On arrival, the orthodox Jewish church continues to hold them.

2. Reform Judaism, with its general resemblance to evangelical Christian church practice, is taken up as "more convenient."
3. Some go into Christian Science; many become entirely unchurched.
4. On marriage to women having allegiance to any Christian church, either the husband pleases the wife by attending her church, or the children are brought up in the mother's church.

The writer would maintain that this is an entirely normal and usual process within American society. Whether it is beneficial or not may be debated; but that it is the normal process can hardly be denied. It may take anywhere from fifty to two hundred years for any particular family to go through it. So normal is it that the writer knows of one case of a prominent Zionist leader in New York, whose family has taken the step in the minimum time.

As a social group, therefore, the Jewish Americans must be considered a group in transition—one steadily but surely losing its distinctive characteristics. The Hebrew Russians, Ukrainians, Roumanians, and southern Poles are such recent arrivals that the process has hardly had time to get conspicuously under way. But the informed educational sociologist will not be deceived by this; he will know that the same social forces that have worked to denationalize the Jew and make his descendants Americans are still at work. He will therefore consider all specific Jewish educational problems as fundamentally those of a group in transition. He will not look for the perpetuation of distinctive traits and folkways, but rather for their elimination.

In conclusion, then, the following inferences are offered for the aid of the educational sociologist:

- 1 The Jews are not Semites, not a pure race, but are a random sampling of all the ethnic elements of Europe

2. Socially, the Jewish Americans and the recently arrived Jewish Slavs (the dominant group in numbers) must be considered as two entirely separate groups. Under the group of Jewish Americans must be included the descendants of Jewish Germans who migrated here during the last century.

3. The normal process for Jewish families in America is a steady series of steps separating them from Jewish affiliations of all sorts.

4. Any specific educational functions for Jewish needs should recognize this last process.

The writer will here add that he personally believes that the correct educational and social handling of Jewish problems is to encourage and hasten the absorption of the Jews into other churches. It is his personal conviction that it is desirable educational practice to strive to undo anything and everything that will serve in any degree to separate the Jewish and the Christian people within our American civilization.

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ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT OF TEACHERS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH IN CHICAGO

ROBERT E. O'BRIEN

II

The management of teachers in the elementary schools of the Roman Catholic Church is greatly complicated by the practical independence of the teaching communities or orders. These societies furnished the great majority of teachers for parochial schools during the school year 1926-1927. In that year 2,846 full-time teachers were employed in the elementary schools of the Church; 2,504 of these were "regular teachers" furnished by the teaching communities. The president of the Archdiocesan School Board said "The teaching communities are the backbone of the parochial school system of our Church."

TABLE I
THE NUMBER OF SPECIAL, LAY, AND REGULAR TEACHERS IN THE CHICAGO PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS, 1926-1927

Kinds of Teachers		Number
Special		289
Lay		53
Regular		2,504
Total Teachers		<u>2,846</u>

The members of the teaching communities are popularly known as "sisters" or "nuns." Each order has its own Mother House presided over by a Mother General, who is responsible to the Pope or his appointed representatives. The members of the order are responsible to the Mother General regardless of where they are stationed. Consequently teachers in the parish schools are independent of the pastor, and to a large extent, of the Archdiocesan

School Board. The pastor, although he is the superintendent of the school, cannot change his teachers, nor can the Archdiocesan School Board. All they can do is to request the Mother House for a change, which may or may not be granted. It is rare that a school is taken from one teaching community and transferred to another. Once a school is placed under the control of an order it tends to remain there. Each community has its own methods and to a certain extent its own program. The result of this division of authority is that disputes occasionally arise between pastor and teachers that injure the school.

Teachers assigned by the Mother General of the order are seldom changed during the year. They live together in each parish in a house provided by the local church. Here in the local convent the teachers are under the authority of one of their number known as the Superior who is appointed annually by the Mother General. This Superior is in charge of the spiritual and temporal affairs of the local community, and acts as principal of the parish school. When supplies are needed and repairs must be made the Superior places the matter before the pastor and parish trustees. The teachers are absolutely subject to the Superior, even being obliged to do the scrubbing and washing about the convent when ordered to do so. Cases of disobedience are punished by the Mother House through its traveling Supervisor. Sometimes the offending teacher is transferred to another school. If the case is grave, she may be withdrawn to the Mother House for special spiritual exercises.

The Mother House of each community sends supervisors to the schools frequently during the year. This official asks questions regarding enrollment, attendance, equipment, and supplies, making suggestions for improvement where needed. She visits the rooms of the various teachers and makes notes on their teaching. Sometimes she administers standardized achievement tests to determine the effective-

ness of the teaching process. It is her duty to see that the spiritual and educational standards of the community are maintained in its parish schools. At least once a year, if possible, the Mother General of the order visits each school under her jurisdiction.

The sisters or nuns all wear the uniform or habit adopted by their order, except when they engage in work outside the community such as teaching in public schools, when they are permitted to dress in a modest civilian manner. Their salary as teachers is \$35.00 per month, out of which sum they must provide their food, clothing, and personal expenses such as tuition for further scholastic training. The parish in which they teach furnishes the convent with light, heat, and water, free of charge.

Teachers from one community are never placed in schools under the jurisdiction of another community. An order may have a surplus of teachers so that some members of the society are obliged to do outside or secular work, such as teaching in public or private schools. Another community will not have enough teachers to man the schools assigned to it, but the idle teachers in the one community are never transferred to the schools of the other. Instead, when a community is unable to furnish teachers for all its schools, the parish is obliged to employ special teachers to assist the sisters. If this method fails laywomen are employed as full-time teachers. Each community is mutually exclusive.

Laywomen, usually persons with some teaching experience, are employed when a community is unable to furnish sufficient teachers for a school. During the school year 1926-1927 there were 53 lay teachers employed at some time in the Chicago parochial schools. Superiors where lay teachers were found told how they had doubled up classes and used special teachers until forced to "ask Father for a lay teacher." One of the reasons for this reluctance to employ lay teachers is the expense. The lowest salary

found paid to a lay teacher was \$550.00 per year. It was alleged that lay teachers' work was not as thorough as the sisters' since "they do not have the interest of the children at heart," because "they teach for money and not for love." Often a regular teacher would say "lay teachers cannot teach religion as well as we, because they do not wear the habit which is part of our religion." Some pastors said that parents objected to lay teachers, because they sent their children to the parochial schools to be taught by "sisters," since they could be taught by laywomen in the public schools for nothing.

The elementary schools of the Roman Catholic Church in Chicago employed 289 special teachers during the school year 1926-1927. The duties of these teachers vary widely. Often their subjects are not a part of the regular curriculum, but are courses which the pupils may take by paying an extra fee. Sometimes they are employed for courses which the regular teachers are not permitted or qualified to teach, such as dancing or manual training. Subjects taught by special teachers include music, drawing, physical culture, elocution, singing, manual training, domestic science, swimming, shorthand, bookkeeping, typewriting, printing, and public health and hygiene. No accurate data could be secured regarding salaries of special teachers; some work gratis; others charge a fee to each pupil. Occasionally, a sister who gives lessons in music and drawing after school is listed as a special teacher.

The training of the regular teachers in the elementary parochial schools is shown in Table II. A total of 2,119 of the sisters, or 84.6 per cent were high-school graduates. The 15.4 per cent without this training were for the most part elderly women who had been teaching many years. All of the regular teachers had completed a normal course of training in some institution. Each community requires that its novices undergo a course of instruction at the Mother House to prepare them for their life in the order

and to fit them for their duties as teachers. This includes a normal course of one, two, or three or more years, depending on the previous experience and training of the candidate. When the novice has finished this course satisfactorily she is granted a certificate and begins work under an experienced teacher.

A few applicants for admission into the communities have had valuable training previous to their entering. For example, one sister who had been teaching in the parochial schools for five years held a certificate from the Chicago Normal College and an A.B. from the University of Chicago. She had taught four years in the public schools of Chicago before entering the order. Individuals with such training and experience do not take the full course required of inexperienced novices.

College degrees were held by 467, or 18.6 per cent of the regular teachers. These degrees included bachelor of arts, bachelor of science, bachelor of philosophy, or bachelor of music. Besides these, 182 or 7.2 per cent held advanced degrees. For the most part these degrees were from accredited Catholic colleges and universities, although 82 teachers held advanced degrees from such institutions as the University of Chicago or State universities. It appeared that, when convenient, teachers preferred to take their work in Catholic schools.

TABLE II

TRAINING OF REGULAR TEACHERS IN THE CHICAGO PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS,
1926-1927

Kinds of Training	Number	Percentage
High School	2,119	84.6
Normal Course	2,504	100.0
College Graduate (bachelor's degree)	467	18.6
Advanced degrees	182	7.2

St. Francis Xavier's College for Women, which is the Mother House of the Sisters of Mercy, is a good example of a Catholic college. In this school a wide range of sub-

jects is offered. A diploma is granted for the completion of a normal course of one or two years. A diploma is granted for the completion of a two years' course in music or a two or three years' course in expression. Besides these diploma courses the degrees of bachelor of arts, bachelor of philosophy, bachelor of science, and bachelor of music are given. Special courses known as teachers' promotional credit courses mostly in education are offered those who wish to work for advanced degrees.

The teaching communities insist that the teachers continue their studies and keep abreast of the times. Table III shows that almost all of the parochial-school teachers attended classes during the school year of 1926-1927 or were in school the following summer. Work taken at summer schools and in afternoon or evening classes is often applied towards an advanced degree. The Archdiocesan School Board was proud of the number of teachers who had obtained college degrees, although the president of the Board said that in one sense these constituted a serious problem since they wanted to teach in parochial high schools as soon as they received a degree.

TABLE III
NUMBER OF PAROCHIAL-SCHOOL TEACHERS CONTINUING THEIR TRAINING
WHILE TEACHING IN CHICAGO DURING 1926-1927

Types of Training	Number Taking Training
Summer school (1927).	1,972
Correspondence courses	649
College or Normal (afternoon or evening classes)	2,142
Educational reading	1,684

The median estimated age was 36 years, and the median experience in teaching was 14 6 years. The highest median age in any parish school was 57 years and the lowest was 25 years. During the same year the Chicago public schools reported that the highest median age for any individual school was 45 years, and the lowest was 26 years, 9 months.¹

¹Report of the Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Ill., 1926, page 47

The number of teachers transferred within the system indicates the satisfaction that the parochial-school teachers give. During the year 1926-1927, 104 schools showed 189 teachers transferred, a total of 1.8 per school. The smallest schools in the system enrolling less than 320 scholars showed the largest number of teachers transferred, indicating that the faculties of these schools do not function as well as those of the larger schools. Apparently no effort is made by the Mother Houses to send the better trained teachers to either large or small schools. In fact the distribution of teachers, so far as degrees are concerned, appears to be almost at random. One small school with four rooms had three teachers who held bachelor of arts degrees, and one of these also had a master of arts degree from the University of Chicago. On the other hand, a large school with eighteen rooms did not have a teacher with a college degree.

The median number of pupils per teacher for the entire parochial school system was 56.3. There were a few cases where rooms were badly overcrowded. One of the most glaring instances was a school which had outgrown its building, and had part of the pupils meeting in an old church. One class met in a room which had formerly been part of the auditorium. There were 86 pupils in this room under one teacher. In this school it appeared that the size of the room was the only limit on the number of pupils placed under the care of a teacher. Rooms in which sixty or more children were under one teacher were visited. In every case the pupils appeared orderly and well behaved.

The teaching communities vary in their requirements regarding home visitation. All of them expect the teachers to be familiar with the home conditions of all their pupils. Because of this the sisters are usually expected to call on the pupils in their homes at least once each year. Most of the orders expect teachers to call frequently at homes where pupils are not making satisfactory progress. The pastors aid the teachers in this work. In practice frequent

calls are made to homes where parents threaten to take their children to the public school. The object of these visits is to persuade the parents to allow the child to remain at the parochial school. Frequent visitation, especially by the pastor, secures a large degree of cooperation from the parents in disciplinary matters.

One of the most outstanding features of the classroom was the fact that the teachers made but little use of textbooks. Apparently they were sufficiently well prepared to teach the lesson without referring to the text. Most of the teaching communities attribute poor discipline to poor preparation on the part of the teacher. Consequently each member is asked to be thoroughly prepared for each recitation before entering the classroom. Data gathered from personal interviews revealed the fact that most of the teachers allotted a definite time for preparation. This varied with different schools. Where one grade was assigned to a teacher less time was required than where each teacher had several grades or parts of grades. Eleven schools reported a median time of one hour spent in preparation of lessons, 114 schools had a median of two hours, 18 of three hours, and four schools where each teacher had more than two grades reported four hours spent in preparation of lessons by each teacher.

HANDEDNESS

IRA M. GAST

For the purpose of studying the problem of handedness along somewhat new lines and to discover if possible new data relating to the problem, a list of thirty activities has been used by the writer in case studies of 169 males and 164 females aged twelve years or older. Certain of the original list of activities have been discarded from this report because of being peculiar to one sex only, or not being common to all the cases studied. The original list was thus reduced to twenty-four different activities. In obtaining the responses each individual was required to go through the motions of performing each particular act, and whenever possible actually to do the thing suggested. A record was made as to which hand or foot was used, without revealing to the subject whether he was using the right or the left.

The list of twenty-four activities is submitted by number, and the responses are recorded in tables I and II.

List of Activities Used in Case Studies of Handedness

1. Hand used in throwing a ball
2. Hand used in hammering
3. Hand used in spreading bread
4. Hand used in eating food with fork
5. Hand used in cutting meat
6. Hand used in cutting bread
7. Hand used in drinking from cup
8. Hand used in brushing teeth
9. Hand used in brushing hair
10. Hand used in brushing clothes
11. Hand first thrust into sleeve in putting on coat
12. Hand used in buttoning clothing
13. Hand used in writing

14. Hand used in receiving food at table
15. Hand used in passing food at table
16. Hand used in holding food eaten from hand
17. Hand used in eating with spoon
18. Stocking put on first
19. Shoe put on first
20. Hand nearest shovel when shoveling coal or snow
21. Hand nearest floor when sweeping with broom
22. Hand preferred in carrying packages
23. Hand usually used to turn knob of door
24. Foot used in kicking ball

TABLE I

Showing handedness among 169 males in the 24 activities listed.

Activity	No. Using Right Hand	No. Using Left Hand	No. Using Either Hand	Total
1.....	143	21	5	
2.....	145	19	5	
3.....	138	23	8	
4.....	137	20	12	
5.....	130	19	20	
6.....	135	21	13	
7.....	128	23	18	
8.....	124	17	28	
9.....	112	20	37	
10.....	107	19	43	
11.....	114	16	39	
12.....	102	22	45	
13.....	162	7	0	
14.....	111	21	37	
15.....	102	23	44	
16.....	126	25	18	
17.....	148	18	3	
18.....	99	48	22	
19.....	101	45	23	
20.....	48	113	8	
21.....	46	114	9	
22.....	116	35	18	
23.....	136	23	10	
24.....	144	17	8	
	<hr/> 2854	<hr/> 729	<hr/> 473	<hr/> 4056

Per cent of Activities Performed

Right-handed	Left-handed	Either-handed
70.3	17.9	11.8

TABLE II

Showing handedness among 164 females in the 24 activities listed

Activity	No. Using Right Hand	No. Using Left Hand	No. Using Either Hand	Total
1..	132	23	9	
2.....	138	16	10	
3..	125	18	21	
4.....	140	12	12	
5	132	19	13	
6.....	138	15	11	
7.....	136	15	13	
8	121	13	30	
9	115	17	32	
10.	116	11	37	
11.	96	29	39	
12.	82	41	41	
13.. . . .	159	4	1	
14.. . . .	114	13	37	
15.. . . .	113	11	40	
16.....	135	15	14	
17.. . . .	149	10	5	
18	102	32	30	
19... . . .	103	32	29	
20	68	93	3	
21.	67	91	6	
22.	96	36	32	
23.	131	14	19	
24.....	134	15	15	
	<hr/> 2842	<hr/> 595	<hr/> 499	<hr/> 3936

Per cent of Activities Performed

Right-handed	Left-handed	Either-handed
72.2	15.1	12.7

Some observations are as follows:

1. There is a high degree of right-handedness with both sexes. This may be due to the nature of the activities themselves. A list could be made which would show the opposite tendency.
2. No individual was found to perform all the acts with one side of the body only. Every individual dominantly right-handed performed one or more of the acts with the left hand and *vice versa*.

3. One girl eats pie with a fork in the right hand but always eats soup and cereal with a spoon in the left hand.
4. Several individuals were found to perform as many acts with one hand as with the other. They seem neither dominantly right-handed nor left-handed.
5. One of the girls offered the information that she sews with the right hand, but uses shears with the left.
6. The dominantly right-handed are usually left-handed in acts 20 and 21 and *vice versa*.
7. Of thirty-three cases with speech defect included in the above data, none could be attributed to the change from one hand to the other in making a particular response, such as changing the hands in writing.

Traditional notions of handedness attribute the tendency to use a particular hand to heredity. One eleven-year-old boy¹ recently revealed his training. "I do everything left-handed. I was born that way." But even he unconsciously performs four of the activities listed with his right hand. It is scarcely conceivable that an individual inherits tendencies to use a particular hand or foot for tasks absolutely artificial. It seems more reasonable that he steps from an escalator with his right foot, holds a book with his left hand, adjusts a parking brake with his right, uses both feet in controlling an automobile and both hands in playing a piano or operating a typewriter because of the great adaptive power of his response mechanism rather than that he inherits those tendencies.

Several questions of educational significance pertaining to handedness have been answered and educational policies determined without the use of scientific data. The study of these 333 cases leads the writer to conclude

- (1) that the unguided individual begins to use that member for making a particular response which is most available for that purpose;
-

- (2) that the individual can naturally be guided to make a particular response with whatever member will render him more efficient individually and socially;
- (3) that the child can and should be encouraged to perform certain acts with one hand and certain ones with the other or with both according to his physical advantage and social environment;
- (4) that people are right-handed or left-handed with reference to the particular response only.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department titles—and where possible descriptions—of current research projects now in process in educational sociology, and also those projects of interest to educational sociology in kindred fields. Correspondence upon proposed projects and methods will be welcomed.

FACTORS CONDITIONING HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS

A study of some of the conditioning factors in the work of the high-school pupils in the Fowlerville (Michigan) community has been completed by Harvey D. Douglass, superintendent of schools, Fowlerville, Michigan.

The hypothesis upon which the investigation proceeded is as follows: The work the child does in school is conditioned by factors outside of the school. The school cannot function properly unless these factors are known as to type, extent, and their influence upon the work the child does in school.

The investigator: the local superintendent of schools, who is part of the environment and consequently in close contact with it.

What is comprehended in the study: 279 high-school pupils in grades seven to twelve, inclusive, drawn from a zigzag area which conforms very closely to the banking area and the commercial area of the community. This area extends approximately twenty miles north and south and eight miles east and west. It is located in Livingston County, Michigan, part of Ingham County, and part of Shiawassee County. It is a typical rural area. The school is located in Fowlerville on a main arterial paved highway (Grand River Avenue), twenty-five miles east of Lansing and sixty miles north and west of the Detroit City Hall, both cities being located on Grand River Avenue.

The period of the study extended over the last five months of the school year of 1927-1928, the first three months of the school year 1928-1929, and the summer vacation period. The studies on leisure time—time spent outside of school hours—extended over a period of five months.

I. Findings were determined by

1. Group-study schedules of (a) the child, (b) the father, and (c) the mother
2. Leisure-time questionnaire of (a) the child as to (1) waking hours, (2) hours under the influence of the school, (3) how he spends his time outside school hours each day of the week, and (4) how the child spends Saturdays and Sundays
3. Schedules on physical environmental conditions in the home
4. Questionnaires on how the vacation was spent

II. Sources of information

1. Schedules
2. Questionnaires
3. Visits
4. Interviews

III. Checks upon the material collected

1. Signatures of parents or guardian
2. Visits and interviews with the child and the parent in school, at home, upon the street, and at times when they were not aware that a check was being made

IV. Tabulation of data

1. Comparison with marks received in school as shown by:
 - a Record of school marks
 - b Data collected
2. Material for the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades was tabulated separately from the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades.

The studies were made in collaboration with the department of sociology of Michigan State College at East Lansing, Michigan.

(NOTE: The results of this study were described in a paper at the Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Society in Chicago, 1928.)

A STUDY OF SOCIAL CONTACTS IN A RURAL COMMUNITY

Through personal interviews with leaders of the community association, the idea of making a study of social contacts in rural community was "sold" to the community people. The work was undertaken under the direction of Assistant Professor H. J. Burt of the department of rural sociology of the College of Agriculture, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri.

After the idea was adopted by the community the situation then became ostensibly that of a community studying itself, in the expectation that measures for community improvement would result therefrom. The ten district-school teachers were employed on an hourly basis to keep records of all events occurring in each school district during a set period of three months. Some fifteen other local people were employed to gather further information. A system of administering this work through correspondence and personal visits was carried out. An objective record of all social contacts except those due to visiting was secured by these means.

At the end of the three months' period, a record of the social contacts which had been experienced during this period in the form of visiting was secured by the use of a questionnaire. Numerous devices were employed to secure a large and accurate response. Some of these devices were: separate letters with appropriate appeals to each group; all letters written as though coming directly from a group of prominent local people whose names were signed to each letter; the enclosure of a sample copy of the questionnaire

completely filled out; the enlistment of coöperation of school teachers who used their influence upon the children and the home folks to help secure a large return of questionnaires; use of the local press to emphasize the importance of loyal cooperation on the part of every citizen; use of high-school boys and girls to collect delinquent questionnaires at so much apiece, after all other methods had been exhausted. Questionnaires went to all persons in the community above the age of six. A final return of sixty-five per cent of the questionnaires was secured, with evidence of a high degree of reliability.

This process of getting a community to study itself has secured an abundant supply of accurate material of a type which could have been gathered in no other way.

(NOTE: The results of this study were given in a paper at the Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Society in Chicago, 1928.)

MAJOR TREND OF EDUCATION IN OTHER COUNTRIES: SOURCES

The above is the title of a bulletin by James F. Able,¹ dealing with the following topics: changes in national government, international aspects of education, ministers of education, provisions for education, illiteracy and its eradication, primary and elementary education, secondary education, and higher education.

¹Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 13, 1928

BOOK REVIEWS

Science and Good Behavior, by H. M. PARSHLEY. New York: Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1928, 281 pages.

This volume consists of eleven chapters, the first six of which are devoted to the development of the author's point of view, the next two chapters to a critical discussion of alcohol and religion, and the last three on the control of conduct, scientific ethics, and a brief statement of the author's conclusions. In developing his point of view and mode of approach the author quotes extensively from the researches of such men as Jennings, Sabre, Parker, Patton, and others. He traces the evolution of the bodily organisms as an instrument of behavior from the lowest forms of life up to man, considering what he calls the fundamental urges of hunger, sex, and fear, and the evolution of the means of the various levels of satisfying these fundamental urges, such as tropism, the avoiding reaction, receptor, adjustor, effector, plan of the nervous system, reflex arcs, instinctive behavior, intelligence behavior, the general structure and functions of the nervous system, and the endocrine organs.

The chief value of this part of the book is the brief, simple, and interesting way in which the author summarizes the best results of the researches of biology in this particular field. The author rightly emphasizes the great and increasing importance of science and scientific method in the development of modern ethics and in the control of the individual and group behavior. The book as a whole, however, is disappointing and is likely to prove to be of little value chiefly because of the spirit in which much of it is written. The author's conception of science and scientific method as applied to the field of human behavior is in the judgment of the reviewer altogether too restricted. Too often his statements are those of an advocate, a protagonist for a particular point of view, a propagandist rather than the calm, softly weighed utterances of a truly scientific man. Interesting examples of this are found on pages 93, 94, 130, 148, 151, and 173. He seems to feel that he has successfully disposed of his adversary if he points out the mistakes which he has made in the past and calls him ugly names. For example (page 93), "to use the eyes, to record, to consider—this is to find truth. And only the artist and the scientist qualify for the search. The creative thinkers and the wishmongers—those who claim to bring us word of the ineffable and the inscrutable—are really strangers to the way, the truth, and the life, and the modern world is repudiating their time-honored leadership."

Along with a number of sensible and important things in his discussion of the subject of alcohol one finds this illuminating passage: "Education

makes goose-steppers and widens the gulf between the dull and the intelligent; romantic love is alarming, transitory, and at best affects but a small fraction of a lifetime, religion divides more than it unites, hardens more than it softens, and demands wonders of credulity; philosophy and poetry avoid facts and are essentially antisocial if we may be permitted to judge by their most eminent practitioners; music is intensely and personally absorbing or totally ineffectual, or itself a social curse of the first order, and the same may be said of the movies, the theater, and all other public entertainments, war is like love; clubs, societies, and fraternal organizations are usually no better than society in miniature; games, when not imbecilic, intensify the strain and struggle of competition, and our native antagonism to our companions; and the Brotherhood of Man, that fair will-o'-the-wisp that has lured so many bright spirits over the treacherous marshes of proletarianism, brings its votaries anything but peace.

"Alcohol stands in contrast with all these things, succeeding where they fail, because of its specific biological effects upon the human nervous system, because it is (or may be) readily available, and because it has none of the disadvantages just recounted." This statement is certainly impressive.

On page 151 is found the following illuminating definition of religion: "By religion I mean the fancies of ignorant mankind that grow from fear and credulity, the vague longings and wishes that spring from man's apprehension of an impersonal and enigmatic universe, and the ecclesiastical establishments that have grown up by taking advantage of such all but universal sentiments and reinforcing them through every means that wit and experience can devise."

Moreover, the fundamental assumption that seems to be characteristic of the book, that one has sufficiently explained human behavior when he has fully described the bodily mechanisms by means of which behavior must find expression in a material world is certainly inadequate. The effort so frequently made in recent days to restrict the application of scientific method to this mechanistic point of view in dealing with such complex realities as human life and behavior is likely to prejudice sensible people too much against the application of science in its broader meanings and methods to the study of these problems. One might as well say that he has fully explained scientifically a watch when he has pointed out and described fully all the mechanical elements which enter into the make-up of the watch and designated the quantitative relations in which these elements stand to each other. This would be true and valuable so far as it goes, but there are other scientific ways of studying a watch. One might trace, for example, its evolution as a timekeeper. The book has value, but it would have much more value if these and other defects could be eliminated.

JOHN W. WITHERS

Anthropology and Modern Life, by FRANZ BOAS. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1928, 246 pages.

Social Change, by W. F. Ogburn. New York: Viking Press, 1927, 365 pages.

Culture and Social Progress, by JOSEPH KIRK FOLSOM. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1928, 558 pages.

An understanding of the problems of our contemporary social life depends more upon an appreciation of culture than upon a knowledge of original nature. Kroeber has called this the "anthropological" attitude. It involves detachment from culture, the ability to see the social heritage as distinct from the biological nature of man; it involves an understanding of how the social heritage patterns the behavior of individuals born into it, it involves a knowledge of how the social heritage accumulates, of how culture changes.

In *Anthropology and Modern Life* Franz Boas, drawing on the experience of a long and distinguished career as an anthropologist, indicates the possibility and significance of bringing the point of view and method of anthropology to the interpretation of modern life. Among his applications the discussions of education, of the stability of culture, and of modern civilization in the light of primitive culture are especially significant. Written in his usual forthright, readable style, the book is a peculiarly happy medium for conveying to the layman the meaning of the anthropological attitude.

In *Social Change* Dr. Ogburn, though devoting some space to making clear the difference between culture and man's biological nature, is primarily interested in delineating the processes whereby culture accumulates and changes, and in developing the thesis that social problems arise out of unequal rates of change in the component parts of culture. This thesis, which he calls the "cultural lag" is one of the more important of recent contributions to social theory. Dr. Ogburn adduces much concrete evidence from contemporary American life which convincingly substantiates his contention.

In *Culture and Social Progress*, after an excellent discussion of culture and original nature (of how man makes culture and culture then controls man), followed by a statement of the processes of cultural accumulation and change (in which Ogburn's theory of the cultural lag is taken over), Dr. Folsom proceeds to an extraordinarily interesting discussion of the evaluation of the elements of culture and the technique of controlling cultural change. Dr. Folsom's book is probably the best text published through which to introduce beginning students to the study of contemporary culture.

An appreciation of the meaning of culture and of its rôle in social behavior is, or so the reviewer believes, the first step in the development of the sociological point of view. It might well be made the goal of every introductory course in sociology. All three of these books will prove useful in such a course.

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH

Urban Sociology, by NELS ANDERSON and EDOUARD C LINDEMAN. New York: Alfred A Knopf, 1928, 414 pages.

Much research has gone on in the field of urban sociology in the past decade and we are indebted to Park, Burgess, Thomas, Zorbaugh, Thrasher, Anderson, and a host of others for their contributions, but the authors of the volume under review have made a contribution not previously made by any of the students of the field. They have created a textbook which will meet the needs of the teacher of urban sociology. The authors say in the preface. "This book aims to fulfill but one purpose; namely, to meet the needs of students engaged in the study of the sociology of urban communities. It purports to be a textbook designed for classroom use. The so-called "general reader," who is often included in the prospective purview of textbook writers, has been wholly neglected. It is our belief that a text should be fashioned as a tool to be used by teachers and students, and that this central function should not be interfered with by vague appeals to a general public."

The authors have adhered strictly to the purpose as outlined and have thus provided a textbook that will undoubtedly have wide use among sociologists. The scope of the book may be indicated by its four parts. The Structure of the City, Functions of the City, Urban Personalities and Groups, Social Change and the Impact of the Urban Environment.

In spite of the fact that the authors have created a textbook for the classroom, they have made it interesting and attractive. The book will be of interest to general readers, and should be read by every teacher in the elementary and secondary schools.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

Teaching in Secondary Schools, by A. D. MUELLER. New York: The Century Company, 1928, 445 pages.

This book, like several others of its type, has for its purpose the training of teachers. The preface states "Teaching in secondary schools is an attempt to bring together in a single volume all that is good from the old procedures. . . is offered to prospective high-school teachers and to teachers in service, as a working guide with the hope that they may find it of value in preparing them to solve their instructional problems by giving them the fundamentals of high-school procedure."

The first chapter discusses the adolescent pupil. In view of the increased emphasis now placed upon adolescence, it is doubtful whether this chapter will be of much value to the beginning teacher owing to the brief and sketchy manner in which the psychology of adolescence is discussed. A commendable feature of this chapter is the list of suggestions, in "What the School Must Give to the Adolescent Pupil."

Each of the remaining sixteen chapters is devoted to the application of classroom techniques, as: Motivation, Discipline; The Lecture or Telling Method; Habit for Motion; Practice and Drill; Directing the Study Process; Socialized Class Procedures, The Project Method, Individualizing Instruction; Measuring the Results of Instruction, etc.

A mere glance at the above named titles will indicate to the reader that the book consists chiefly of a recapitulation of the contents of numerous similar texts. The discussions likewise are similar to those in several books that have been in rather wide use for a number of years. In justice to the author, however, it should be mentioned that in these discussions he has incorporated the results of some of the latest and most comprehensive experiments. These experiments should prove of special interest to the teachers in training as well as those in service. They should result in the improvement of the technique of teaching. It seems most unfortunate to the reviewer that the exercises at the end of each chapter are not so constructed as to call for further inquiry and judgment on the part of the student. The questions are largely based upon the contents of the chapter and will, to a large extent, result in repetition of what has already been learned in class.

PAUL S. MILLER

Human Relations: An Introduction to Sociology, by
THOMAS NIXON CARVER and HENRY BASS HALL.
New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1923, viii
+ 302 pages.

The authors of this volume agree in their intense antipathy to anything that savors of socialism, in their profound confidence in democracy, and in their admiration for conventional Americanism. They seem to differ somewhat in their conceptions of the means by which ultimate social objectives are to be achieved.

Professor Hall preaches the gospel of conflict, in the evolutionary sense of the survival of the fittest. In accordance with the strictest Darwinian interpretation he sets up no criterion of fitness, other than the ability to survive. The battle belongs to the strong. The victor deserves not only the tangible rewards of strength, but the adulation of his fellows. The weakling requires nothing of society, or of philanthropy, save to be dragged back into the arena, set upon his feet again, and given a chance to renew the struggle. These principles apply to

societies as well as to individuals. The goal of social effort is abundance of life, the author does not make it clear whether abundance takes account of quality or only of quantity. It seems to be a fair inference, however, that he would regard a world population of three billion as a higher social achievement than one of two billion, regardless of the quality of life involved.

Professor Carver, on the other hand, portrays social success as dependent upon standards of conduct, devised and enforced by society itself. The conflict is not to be free, competition is not to be unrestrained. The strong are not to be allowed the unqualified rewards of their superiority. As between societies, the one with high standards will win out in the long run over the one with low standards. Because of the differences in national cultures, Professor Carver does not look hopefully upon the prospect of establishing a comprehensive system of international limitation of competition in the near future.

HENRY P. FAIRCHILD

The Psychology of the Adolescent, by LETA S. HOLLINGWORTH. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1928, 220 pages.

Except perhaps for senility, there is no period of the span of life about which we know less than we do about adolescence. Dr. Hollingworth contributes in this book a viewpoint on the psychology of the adolescent which may be said to be a compendium of present fact and opinion in the field. She writes with admirable felicity and clearness in presenting her material, which is historical rather than the product of research. Despite the possibilities of her subject for emotional and spectacular treatment, she preserves a very sane attitude towards the phenomenon of adolescence itself and a commendable caution in stating the facts. According to the author there are four fundamental hurdles to be taken at the adolescent period: psychological weaning or getting away from the family, achieving self-support, solving the problem of mating, and acquiring a point of view upon life. Failure to take any one of these successfully menaces a person with inefficient and inadequate maturity, and lays the foundations for insane and delinquent behavior. The public ceremonies of tribal life are cited as giving adolescence a fundamental meaning and setting the standards of maturity to which we still subscribe. Maturity is interestingly defined and described by the author.

The book will serve the purpose of informing teachers and parents, but it will disappoint the student of research. Many of the statements made by Dr. Hollingworth are the most challenging hypotheses, still to be proved by factual data obtained from the study of adolescents while they are adolescents. Too much of the material on the subject represents the testimony of adults looking back upon adolescence and reporting it as they think it was. The period needs the same observational

and experimental treatment as we are now giving the preschool child. Dr. Hollingworth says enough of the importance that attaches to adolescence to stimulate the necessary gathering of data which alone will justify us in taking steps to deal with this interesting but relatively unexplored period of life.

AGNES CONKLIN

The Scientific Habit of Thought, by FREDERICK BARRY.
New York: Columbia University Press, 1928, 358
pages.

Mr. Barry is of the opinion that the wide interest in scientific matters should be encouraged and developed; he believes that this can be done, in part, by imparting to the waiting world "the living spirit [of the productive natural scientist] which animates his labor, the instinctive philosophy which guides it, or the methods which make it effective."

The author proceeds to define science in general, the nature of the scientific temperament—so many parts "exceptional obstinacy," so many, "persistence, self-command, and defensive imperturbability"; a generous seasoning of impracticability' result, "tough-mindedness—" and then he concludes the first third of his book with a contrast of the scientific habit of thought with metaphysical logic.

The larger part of the book is given over to a lengthy, and to this reader, an unnecessary discussion of the true nature of 'fact, the recognizability of fact, the mutability of fact, the scientific method of ascertaining and treating fact, and the "hypothetical approach [of scientific knowledge] towards a final stability of form." The last section of the book is an essay on the evolution of mathematical influence upon, and the rôle of mathematics in, scientific theory

The book is pleasantly discursive and tries to be informal. It will not do much for those who are interested in developing a scientific habit of thought; they are referred to the joint work of the Columbia associates in philosophy on reflective thinking.

IRVING ASTRACHAN

Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child, by DOUGLAS A. THOM. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1927, 350 pages.

The Problem Child at Home, by MARY B. SAYLES. New York: The Commonwealth Fund Division of Publications, 1928, 341 pages.

Parents on Probation, by MIRIAM VAN WATERS. New York. The New Republic, Incorporated, 1927, 328 pages.

Speech Training for Children, by MARGARET GRAY BLANTON and SMILEY BLANTON. New York: The Century Company, 1919, 261 pages.

Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child, by Dr. Thom, who is director of the Boston habit clinics, is addressed to parents, as indeed are the three books which follow. It deals with the formation of wholesome social and emotional habits in average, "normal" children. Among the problems discussed are feeding, sleep, enuresis, thumb sucking and nail biting, obedience and discipline, anger, fear, jealousy, destructiveness, feelings of inferiority, personality changes following illness, habit spasms, delinquency, and sex. There are also chapters on heredity and environment, the parent-child relationship, and teacher and pupil. A brief bibliography suggests further reading. The author's treatment of habit problems is sane and practical and is simply presented. The book should be on all parent-teacher association reading lists.

The Problem Child at Home might be read with or after Dr. Thom's book. Miss Sayles has presented interesting summaries of cases selected from the records of the demonstration child-guidance clinics conducted by the Commonwealth Fund. The cases are presented as a concrete basis for the discussion of various types of behavior problem. Part I deals with the emotional satisfactions which parent and child seek in one another—the emotional needs of the child, the satisfaction of normal parental love, exaggerated parental love, the impulse to dominate, and favoritisms, antagonisms, and jealousies as related to parental satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Part II considers the nature of the child, sex, child's obligations to the parent, and ideas concerning heredity. Part III consists in discussions of the case narratives. A bibliography is appended.

It is Dr. Van Water's thesis, in *Parents on Probation*, that the problem child is always the result of problem parents. Her thesis is illustrated by discussion of cases from the juvenile court of Los Angeles of which she is referee. The chapter headings indicate something of the problems presented; parents on probation, the family in search of a goal, problems peculiar to parents, nineteen ways of being a bad parent, some modern obstacles to successful parenthood, who is the legal owner of the child, leadership, parents and friends, parents in search of education, the achievements of parents who have succeeded in changing their attitudes. No one will doubt, after reading Dr. Van Water's interesting discussion, that if the school is to attempt the adjustment of the problem child, it must also attempt the education of problem parents. The book itself will prove helpful in so doing. An annotated bibliography is included.

Speech Training for Children takes up in a nontechnical way the problems involved in forming adequate speech habits in the young child. Worked in with the discussion of speech habits are many hints on physical

and mental hygiene in general. There is a discussion of unhealthy types of speech reaction; with suggestions as to their cause and treatment, and consideration of the procedure of home and school in providing retraining. Simple exercises are included, with instructions as to their use. The book will prove useful when put in the hands of parents to whose children the school finds it necessary to give special speech training.

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Dr. Alonzo F. Meyers, director of teacher training of Ohio University at Athens, Ohio, has been appointed director of teacher training in the State Department of Education at Hartford, Connecticut

Superintendent Carroll G. Ried of the Bridgeport, Connecticut, schools has been elected superintendent of the schools of Minneapolis, Minnesota, to succeed Superintendent W. F. Webster, who retires after many years of service in the Minneapolis schools, the last several years as head of the system. Mr. Worcester Warren, who was assistant superintendent of schools at Bridgeport, has been made superintendent succeeding Mr. Ried.

Dr. Henry Crew, professor of physics at Northwestern University, was reelected president of the American Association of University Professors at the recent New York meeting. Professor H. C. Warren of Princeton was elected vice president to succeed Professor Marion P. Whitney of Vassar College.

Albert L. Colston, principal of the Brooklyn Technical High School, was elected president of the newly formed American Association of Technical High Schools and Institutes at the recent convention in Detroit.

Dr. John Shapley, Morse professor of the literature of the arts of design at New York University, has been reelected president of the College Art Association.

Mr. E. S. Russell, formerly superintendent of schools at Simsbury, Connecticut, has become director of the teacher-training school at New Haven. Mr. Paul D. Coltin of Port Arthur, Texas, has succeeded Mr. Russell as superintendent.

Mr. Francis H. Herrick was given a dinner in December commemorating the fortieth year of his service to Western Reserve University.

Mr. Robert C. Post succeeded the late Colonel George Harvey to the board of trustees of the Stevens Institute of Technology.

Dr. Edward T. Devinne has been appointed director of the Bellevue-Yorkville health demonstration to fill the position left vacant by the resignation of Dr. Leverett D. Bristol.

Professor Geoffrey Atkinson was appointed dean of Amherst College at a recent meeting of the executive committee of the board of trustees to succeed Dean Thomas C. Esty, who resigned.

Mrs. Dorothy McSparran Arnold has been appointed assistant dean of the Washington Square College of New York University.

Professor Thomas H. Briggs of Teachers College, Columbia University, who is on sabbatical leave this year, sailed on January 10 with Mrs. Briggs for several months in Sicily, where he will be engaged in writing.

Dean William E. Smyser of Ohio Wesleyan University has been

granted a leave of absence for the academic year 1929-1930. The leave will be the first which Dean Smyser has had in his twenty-eight years at Ohio Wesleyan.

Professor Frank Alfred Golder, of Stanford University, an authority on Russia and director of the Hoover War Library, has died at the age of fifty-one.

Professor John Dewey, of Columbia, will leave for Scotland early in March to deliver a course of Gifford lectures at the University of Edinburgh. Dr Dewey expects to be abroad for six months.

According to reports, Mr Newton D. Baker, of Cleveland, has been offered the presidency of Johns Hopkins University, of which institution he is one of the trustees. Dr. R. Lyman Wilbur, president of Stanford University, has received leave of absence from the trustees in order that he may accept the secretaryship of the Department of the Interior in Mr. Hoover's cabinet.

Carl P. Blackwell on December 10 became dean of agriculture and director of the experiment station of the Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College at Stillwater, Oklahoma.

Kent State Normal College, Kent, Ohio, will formally install Dr. James O. Engelman as president on March 22 and will at the same time dedicate a new training school building and a new library.

Dr. Robert Andrews Millikan, director of Norman Bridge Laboratory of the California Institute of Technology, and Dr. Albert A. Michelson, professor of physics at the University of Chicago, will receive the gold medals awarded by the Society of Arts and Sciences for distinguished work in service.

Dr. Arton Lowe, head of the English department of Miami University and for many years director of English in the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction, has been chosen director of the summer institute of English education of Pennsylvania State College.

Harvey H. Davis, formerly director of the division of records and statistics of St. Louis, Missouri, board of education, has become assistant professor in the school administration department of Ohio University.

William A. Frayer, professor of European history at the University of Michigan, has resigned to become president of the Bureau of University Travel, with headquarters in Newton, Massachusetts.

Dr. Oliver C. Lockhart, head of the department of economics and finance in the University of Buffalo, has been granted leave of absence from January, 1929, to January, 1930, to accompany Professor C. W. Kemmerer as a member of the Commission of Financial Advisors to the Government of China. During his absence Dr. Ralph C. Epstein will be acting head of the department.

Professor George Herbert Mead, professor of philosophy in the University of Chicago, has been chosen Carns Lecturer before the American Philosophical Association for the year 1929.

Alexander D. Lindsay, master of Balliol College, Oxford, delivered the annual Godkin lectures for 1928-1929 at Harvard University on February 5 and 7.

Professor William A. Nitze, chairman of the department of romance languages at the University of Chicago, has been elected president of the Modern Language Association. Professor Hugo Schilling of the University of California is the retiring president.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Dr. Ira M. Gast has been principal of Public School Number 8, Jersey City, New Jersey, for the past several years. Dr. Gast received the B.A. and M.A. degrees from Teachers College, Columbia University, and the doctorate from the School of Education of New York University. Dr. Gast has had several years of experience as principal and superintendent in the public schools of New York and Pennsylvania. He is one of the joint authors (Dr. Charles and Clay Skinner) of *Readings in Educational Psychology* and a newer publication on *Social Psychology*. For sometime Dr. Gast has been a part-time instructor in the School of Education of New York University and an instructor in the summer session of the same school.

Dr. E. George Payne, who is professor of educational sociology and assistant dean, School of Education, New York University, and the editor-in-chief and the originator of this new publication, is a native of Kentucky. He received an A.B. degree from the University of Chicago and later studied in the University of Paris, and the Universities of Berlin and of Bonn, receiving his Ph.D. from the latter in 1909. He was teacher, high-school principal, professor, and dean of the Eastern State Normal School in his native State. For twelve years he was professor of sociology and president of Harris Teachers College, St. Louis. He has held his present position since 1922. Dr. Payne is one of the pioneers in the movement for health and accident education, being the author of numerous articles, pamphlets, and books in these two fields—the chief publications being *Education in Accident Prevention*, *We and Our Health* (books I-IV), and *Health and Safety in the New Curriculum*. His latest book is *Principles of Educational Sociology*.

Dr. David Snedden is professor of education in Teachers College, Columbia University. Professor Snedden is a native of California. He received his bachelor's degree from Leland Stanford Junior and his A.M. and Ph.D. from Columbia. Professor Snedden has had wide experience as teacher, principal, administrator of schools in California and Massachusetts. He has been in his present position since 1916. He is widely known as lecturer and author on education. He has made notable contributions to the literature of vocational and secondary education, and he has been one of the early pioneers in educational sociology, in which field he has written a number of books. His most recent books are *What Is the Matter With American Education* and *Educational Sociology for Beginners*.

Dr. Stephen G. Rich is a native of New York State. His A.B. degree was secured at New York University; his M.A. at Cornell; and his Ph.D. at New York University. Dr. Rich has had considerable experi-

ence as teacher and administrator in the schools of West Virginia and the Union of South Africa. He was sometime supervising principal of the schools at Essex Fells, New Jersey. He gave up teaching for business, and is now a representative of one of the larger publishing houses.

The Reverend Robert O'Brien is a graduate of Northwestern University. The materials presented in this series of articles are the results of his investigation for his doctorate at Northwestern University.

FORTHCOMING ARTICLES

Social Life of the Child of Junior-High-School Age, by Harvey D. Douglass.

Need for Public Education in Advertisement Response, by Paul Maxwell.

Reconstruction of Curricula (series of three articles), by David Snedden.

Some Reflections Upon the Field of Educational Sociology, by Richard Aspinall.

Commercial-Teacher-Training Curricula, by Herbert A. Tonne.

Relations Between the Public and Catholic Schools of Chicago, by Robert E. O'Brien.

Content and Method in Educational Sociology in Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges, by Stephen G. Clement.

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EDITORIAL

There are numerous evidences of an awakening of educators to the realization of the fact that education in its important aspect is determined by the total situation or conditions affecting the behavior of growing children. The naive assumptions, therefore, hitherto widely held, that children could be taken into the formal atmosphere of the school, kept there for a few hours a day, less than five per cent of their total time, and in some way come out educated, is being abandoned. Education sociologically conceived is the process of developing personality by making behavior changes. These behavior changes, moreover, are brought about much more by outside-of-school agencies than in the formal schoolroom, and yet the educator has been for the most part satisfied with a schoolroom job.

A noteworthy attempt to deal with the process of education as a community problem is evidenced in the recent report of the "Cleveland Conference for Educational Cooperation," addressed to those interested in community programs for education. This conference includes all the important agencies and institutions in the city of Cleveland engaged in educational activity; such as the Cleveland pub-

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lic schools, the Cleveland School of Education, Musical Arts Association, Western Reserve University, etc. The efforts of this conference to conceive the task of education as a community effort are expressed as follows:¹

"A spirit of open-mindedness, of interest in any suggestion that bears the least promise of improvement, of willingness to sacrifice the convenience of established procedure, of encouragement for those who would make serious trial of some new venture, of readiness on the part of each institution to alter its program in the interests of the whole, must necessarily characterize members of the Conference in their separate or cooperative efforts to improve their services to the community. Variant points of view, differences of judgment, diversities of policy will appear and should be expected to appear from time to time. Their appearance, however, must be permitted only to emphasize the primary concern on the part of each for the educational program of the community as a whole. And this primary concern will manifest itself in a genuinely sympathetic attitude towards one another's plans and proposals even though an adverse decision may have to be given when the time comes to translate some plan or proposal into practice.

"The purposes of exchanges of service are two; namely, improvement of the services rendered by the institution, and achievement of possible economies in the use of plant or personnel.

"Each institution should be on guard lest it confuse these with other less valid reasons that may influence it in its proposals. The following may be noted as illustrative of such reasons.

"There is the normal desire on the part of each institution to expand its activities along some line for which facilities may be in part available, with the result that interest in expansion instead of interest in determining both its

¹The Cleveland Conference for Educational Cooperation, Annual Report and Reports of Committees, Ohio, 1928

unique responsibility and the most effective ways of meeting that responsibility becomes the controlling factor in the institution's plans.

"There is also the attractive notion that coöperation in and of itself is a desirable objective, whereupon attention becomes centered on securing coöperative arrangements rather than on rendering service. If differences of opinion exist between institutions in certain matters of policy or practice, exchanges of service may be conceived as a means of bringing these differences to agreement. The profit, either professional or monetary, accruing to the individuals immediately concerned in the service given or received is still another factor that may affect institutional decisions."

We cannot hope to perform the task of education adequately in an American community until all the agencies influencing the behavior of the community understand each other's point of view and coöperate in the common task which they face. Cleveland has taken an advanced step in that direction.

MAKING SOCIAL ANALYSES OF COLLEGE COMMUNITIES

MARTIN HAYES BICKHAM

Social analyses of community life situations are relatively a new feature in the field of the social sciences. The application of these techniques to the understanding of college communities is still more recent. But both were to be expected, for, as Professor Charles H. Cooley pointed out in his address before the recent meeting of the American Sociological Society (*see* Report, p. 123),

"All science proceeds by analysis; that is, by intensive study of what appear to be the more essential and lasting constituents of nature, by penetrative observation of limited, manageable, representative phenomena."

"A community," as Professor Wood defined it at this same annual meeting, "is a more or less permanent assemblage of people in a given place" (*see* Report, p. 13). The college community meets this condition. The community as Professor Wood defined it may be said to be, in Cooley's phrase, a "limited manageable representative phenomena." It may, therefore, be the object of the analysis of the social scientist. The college community is a special type of community and may be analyzed by applying to it the "penetrative observation" that Professor Cooley mentions and other types of social-science techniques.

Upon a background of twenty-five years of first-hand experience in college communities and a more recent attempt for eighteen months to apply scientific techniques to their analysis, I would venture to make two generalizations about our contemporary college communities.

(1) Present-day colleges constitute most complex life-situations for this student generation.

(2) Most students are very much confused in this complex life-situation.

If these two generalizations have in them any large measure of truth, it is apparent that our contemporary college communities constitute a challenge to science. Here are social complexes that are in some respects betraying the very basic purposes for which they were conceived. If science has any meaning for life, it needs to give attention to just such emerging difficulties and penetrate into their recesses.

In the remainder of this paper, I am proceeding on the assumption that the techniques of social science, if properly applied to these complex college communities, can analyze them and so help to their better understanding. Upon the basis of the insights thus secured, it is possible for administrative, faculty, and student groups to achieve a better set-up of the life-situations in any college community. By following the processes thus suggested, much confusion in student thinking may be avoided and student personality be released from many of the tensions that now defeat student personality aspirations and even at times prevent the normal and adequate development of those students who in the ordinary course of events are to become the future leaders of the nation. The relations of the college to the national welfare are such that research and experimentation along these lines are fully warranted.

How, then, can we get at an understanding of the relevant social facts of a college community? This is the pertinent practical question that the administrator faces. In the terms of the social sciences, it becomes: What techniques may we apply to achieve a sound social analysis of a college community. I am not assuming that I have any adequate answer for this question, but I want to report some experience in using social-science techniques to analyze college communities. Since January, 1927, it has fallen to my lot to travel through the colleges and seek to arrive at an understanding of the present currents and trends of college life over a wide section of the country. In this

period I have visited about sixty institutions and studied them briefly in an attempt to work out some more exact techniques for the intensive social analysis that it seemed to me was essential to a more constructive life-situation for college students. Towards the end of this period, I have made attempts to apply more intensively to certain colleges the techniques that I had determined showed promise of revealing the essential factors in these complex and puzzling college communities.

In these later studies of college communities, I have consciously tried to make use of four definite types of social-science techniques. These are as follows:

First: the technique of social observation. This involves that "penetrative" insight spoken of by Cooley in the above reference. It is essential to get a clear grasp of the community and its constituent factors, the educational institution itself, the human groups that interplay within the community and the institution, and the persons that make up the personnel of the community and the institution and interact one with the other and with the constituent parts of the whole community. But it early became apparent that observation alone could not pierce the front that life puts up to those who would locate its secrets. Some other techniques were essential to dig beneath this external enumeration of parts; some device for locating the personality tensions and strains. Since I had been for several years engaged in the practical social-work field, it was natural for me to look to that experience for help at this baffling point in my contacts in college communities. Out of this background came the idea for the second type of technique.

Second: the technique of the life history. In case work in the charity field and in some allied lines, a full life history of the client was found to throw light upon many baffling personal and social problems. It seemed to me that this might also be true in the college community, so I

began to apply these techniques to the life study of both the college and the students. It was necessary to go into the backgrounds of the college that I was studying and get some idea of its history and development. Some of the worst current maladjustments were found to emerge in areas thus brought into the horizon. But the students also had life histories and significant formative social backgrounds. Some way must be found for getting at these in as simple and direct a manner as possible. Working away at this problem, I devised what I have called a "student experience record." It is a distinct modification of the life-history technique as worked out by Richmond, Kreuger, and others. I have now assembled many hundreds of these simple but very revealing documents. They are very human and reveal how deeply confused and puzzled the present generation of students is. In analyzing these student experience records, the lines of personality strain in any student community begin to appear. But even these techniques do not bore down into the real deeps of human experience in the colleges. Some more thoroughgoing and penetrating devices must be brought to bear upon certain areas that may resist the other techniques. Here, again, I am indebted to my experience in the social-work field. I have found it advisable and necessary to carry over into this work in the colleges the careful detail and technique of the case worker, which so largely centers in the interview.

Third: the technique of case work and the interview. These are used to bore in more deeply in any areas where tensions and strains are revealed by the earlier mentioned techniques. One must dig down deep into these situations. They constitute the rocks upon which many student personalities are grounded in the stormy seas of college life. I think few have realized how meaningful to student personality some of these maladjustments are. Attention of scientific students of human society have been largely fixed

on those aspects of human maladjustment that most quickly disturb public peace and order. As Professor Thomas told the recent annual meeting of the American Sociological Society, "Naturally the greatest amount of attention, up to the present, has been given to the study of abnormal behavior in the forms which come to public attention, become a nuisance; but behavior difficulties are widespread in the whole population, and it is certain that we can understand the abnormal only in connection with the normal, in relation to the whole social process to which they are both reactions" (*see Report*, p. 11). Few have realized how many students were facing the most difficult and perplexing types of social and personality adjustments. It is only as one bores in behind the rather *blasé* form of student life by careful interview methods and scientific case-work techniques that these more imperiling factors in the life-situations come to attention.

Fourth: the technique of social analysis. As one works along in a college community with the techniques already mentioned, a mass of data is soon assembled. It may all seem very meaningless and an actual embarrassment of riches if there were not some clear-cut techniques for handling it all. This I call the technique of social analysis. It is a careful going over all the data in hand, comparing one part with another, and constantly asking what each item means in the total set-up and social operation of the given college community. Here many questions need to be asked, such as: What are the interrelations of the students with their own voluntary groups and with the educational processes of the college itself? What effects are the voluntary groups and the educational processes having on student personality? Always this process of analysis keeps to the forefront of thinking, the way that our modern social science has stressed the place and values of human personality, in the total social process. The suggestion of

Thomas is valuable here, "We must have more thorough-going exploration of situations. In our planning, we should include studies and surveys of behavior-forming situations, measurement of social influences which will enable us to observe the operation in the formation of delinquent, emotionally maladjusted, and stable personalities, and then determine the ratios" (*see* Report, p 11).

Experience has shown that these techniques used somewhat in the manner described briefly above are productive in leading into the inner life of college communities. The ten studies already completed by these methods have shown that each college community is a separate and apparently unique social phenomenon in the sense of Cooley as quoted above. It has its own history and social backgrounds. It has its own interior arrangements and adjustments. It marks its own students in its own way and often much beyond the purposes of its founders and administrators. But in each instance where thoughtful leaders, both administrators and students, have taken hold of the results of these social analyses and sought to create a constructive life-situation where the analysis revealed maladjustments, the effort has met with such social changes as to warrant further experimentation along these lines. Where social intelligence ties up with the will to social adjustment, it is possible to reset the current life-situations of students on a level that is stimulating and elevating in the development of the finest type of personality among students. Such results seem to warrant further experimentation in devising new techniques and in applying them to the analysis of these confused and complex college communities of our time.

THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM IN THE NEW AGE¹

PHILIP W. L. COX

The Mechanical Revolution is fast changing almost all of the significant activities of mankind. Our homes, our churches, our neighborhoods, our city, State, and national governments, our communication and transportation, our language uses, our reading, our amusements, our vacations, our employments, and our schools and colleges are all in a state of flux. These changes go on through informal experiments, trial and error, and adaptation. Necessarily, perhaps, social institutions lag behind the everchanging life of the new age.

This "social lag" we can decrease if we will. We might even keep abreast of social progress, if we were brave and resourceful. Theoretically the schools could assume a position of leadership but that probability is remote. In the looking-glass country, Alice, who was surprised to find herself in the same place after she had been running as fast as she could for some time, was told by the Red Queen that she would have to run twice as fast as she could if she were to get ahead. "In this country," the Red Queen asserted, "you have to go as fast as you can just to keep where you are!"

THE HIGH SCHOOL'S PROBLEM IN THE NEW AGE

How rapidly high-school enrollments have been increasing in this century is too well known to need stressing here. That we are not even yet serving the majority of adolescent boys and girls through our regular high schools is, however, not often appreciated even by school people. Many do not enroll at all; more drop out in the first two years; and too

¹Address delivered before the Secondary Education Department, Pennsylvania State Education Association, Reading, Pa., December 23, 1928.

many who remain do not enter whole-heartedly into the school's curricular or quasi-curricular activities.

The mechanical revolution has made the growth of secondary-school enrollments possible. The faith of the people in some mysterious power of the school to give to boys and girls the "equipment of the élite" has sent the children on into the high school and has assured the necessary appropriations by State and municipal governments.

Mechanical adaptations are adequate. Adjustments to the problems involved in the almost overwhelming increases in number and types of the student body have been mechanically adequate to a reasonable degree. New buildings with auditoriums, lunchrooms, libraries, shops, studios, laboratories, commercial equipments, gymnasiums, and playgrounds, have been built. Nurses, athletic directors, dramatic coaches, and deans have been appointed. Guidance plans, cumulative records, free supplies and textbooks, building cleaning, and ventilation have absorbed much of the attention of principals and faculties.

School control has become creative. The institutionalizing of student activities has gone on apace. Comprehensive student government organizations, eligibility rules and school leagues, teacher-sponsored clubs, pupil-conducted assemblies, student service squads, school papers, magazines and year books, parents' nights, "junior proms" and school parties, school orchestras and glee clubs, safety-first drives, book weeks, Christmas giving, and Near East Relief have assumed important places in the life of the schools.

Both the mechanical adjustments and the new social controls have been generously conceived, and frequently adequately administered. Pupils of all races, creeds, social backgrounds, and economic levels have been reached and helped by the school through these modern instruments. The schools' inadequacies generally lie not in these newer

adjustments, but in the tradition-ridden "curriculum" practices.

The curriculum has not kept pace. The "stereotypes" of our curriculum practices leave us rather powerless to bring our schools into harmony with our civilization. Our very vocabulary involves "credits," "units," "promotion," "graduation," which are almost meaningless for social education.

We give lip service to the seven objectives—health, fundamentals, home membership, vocation, citizenship, worthy use of leisure, and ethical character. Our diplomas, however, are never granted to pupils because they are healthy, because they read adequately, because they actually cooperate in their homes and communities, because they are vocationally effective, or because they are virtuous. Instead, our credits and promotions and graduations represent four hundred and eighty 60-minute periods of English or the time equivalent thereof, and so many periods of mathematics, foreign languages, history, bookkeeping, auto-mechanics, art, and the rest. As philosophers we accept adequate objectives for secondary education; as administrators, nevertheless, we measure progress towards the attainment of the objectives, by instruments which are sometimes quite meaningless of any significant relationship to these objectives

New socially sanctioned motives are needed. We need to give more formal institutional recognition to functional objectives and to the new social motives which are related to the worthy aspirations of a democratic people.

Over twenty million American citizens recently gave their votes for president to an engineer who has promised a scientific government; while fifteen million more voted for a candidate who has shown remarkable administrative capacity and leadership. Such abilities among its pupils the

school honors informally; its diplomas seldom mention them.

Beauty of person, of home, of churches and parks, of sunset and breaking waves, of literature and music, of art and drama is a powerful motive among many youths and adults. Informally, the school encourages and rewards the creation and appreciation of the beautiful through assemblies, clubs, exhibits, and electives. For most pupils, promotion and graduation take no account of the beauty-motive or beauty-accomplishment.

We talk much of the integration of personality, of social adequacy, of leadership, initiative, originality, and self-reliance. The school promotes these qualities through its social life, and it gives much honor to those who are competent. The school does not hesitate to "fail" such pupils, however, if they do not prepare their home work or write up their laboratory notebooks neatly.

Meantime, the pupils' conceptions of values are progressing beyond the schools' formal schemes. From the world in which they live they learn to value conversation, popularity, leadership, and other social adjustments, beauty, mechanical competency, finance, jobs, and even political and ethical opinions far above school marks. As human beings we agree with them; as schoolmasters we scold them.

Functional objectives would control curriculum practices
As a result, the pupils frequently pierce our well-intentioned masks, they honor us as men and women; they despise us as pedants. And as practical school people, hedged in by State legislation or regulations, by traditions, and by college entrance requirements we seem almost helpless. If, however, we could or would set up functional objectives of true social significance and construct a score curriculum which would directly promote their attainment, we could assure success and high marks to all socially competent pupils in all required subjects. Thus, we would integrate our school

practices and the worthy motives and activities of society.

Take such definable functional objectives as these: (1) associational living; (2) civic understanding; (3) health; (4) language arts; (5) scientific attitudes; (6) appreciations; (7) practical arts. Teacher assignments and time allotments could be arranged for the attainment of these objectives for all pupils. Marks could be given which would really be meaningful in the present civilization. All pupils could succeed—could, indeed, excel in some phase of each significant activity.

Academic subjects should be elective and selective. Reasonably high standards of work could be maintained in elective subjects, but they would prevent graduation only if pupils and parents insisted on the attainment of the impossible.

FOUR CONCEPTIONS OF THE CURRICULUM HELD BY PROGRESSIVES

Let us look briefly at four conceptions of the curriculum which confuse to a greater or lesser degree even the most progressive of us school men.

(1) Some curriculum revisions are based on the essential permanence of the accepted subjects; (2) others are characterized by radical eliminations and additions and new combinations of subjects; (3) in a few cases subjects are subordinated to educational objectives; (4) the emerging curriculum is actually *planned in terms of objectives*. Many educational thinkers subscribe, consciously or unconsciously, to all four assumptions, so that curriculum thinking is often decidedly muddled.

ASSUMPTION 1. *Subjects have inherent values in the education of children.* In our school practices and in the educational philosophies of most of us teachers there are considerable quantities of unquestioned faiths in the mystic powers of subjects. Some of us may be clear that Latin

does not automatically make the student healthy, wealthy, or wise, but we are likely to believe that music or art or physical training will do something of great value for children. This is an underlying mystic faith which sooner or later distorts most educational thinking. Hence, otherwise active and progressive school men sometimes identify themselves with those who are inert.

ASSUMPTION 2. *Curriculum content should be based on analyses of adult activities.* What arithmetic processes are used in community life? what words? what punctuation marks? what historical and geographical facts? what health practices? By "scientific" sociological analyses the functioning traits are determined and it is demanded that these facts and processes, habits and attitudes shall be taught to the children. The outcomes of such teaching are tested by standardized scales or with new type tests; that teacher is often considered to be an efficient teacher whose pupils have learned the items and have stood well on the tests. Obviously, this is a more rational basis for curriculum construction than that of the first assumption. Nevertheless, it makes the child a sort of learning mechanism; his present interests and enthusiasms are not considered. Thus, "scientific" curriculum making becomes a cumbersome obstacle to any vital curriculum progress. Curriculum revisions since 1920 have too often been based on this inadequate assumption; such courses of study generally consist of verbal "facts" and lists of words to memorize, and processes to practice. Meaningless and ineffective, such curricula must surely be.

ASSUMPTION 3 *The curriculum consists of meaningful activities through which facts, habits, and attitudes can be taught.* Few curriculum makers have as yet reached this assumption. The objectives—knowledges, interests, ideals, habits, and powers which are characteristic of approvable child and adult practices—are to be reached by projects

or activities in which pupils engage eagerly. The child's objective may be the dress to be made, the letter to be written, or the song to be sung. The teacher, however, has assured himself that in working out the project, the traits which are of social significance will be promoted. Often the child is made conscious of the value of such a control, in which case the practice itself may be closely articulated with the project. At its best, the educational goals—health practices, command of the fundamentals, home membership, citizenship, leisure, and vocational adjustments—are inherent in the success of the project. Based on this assumption, projects are set up for the purpose of developing ascertained, specific, desirable traits; attitudes and desires, it is hoped, are achieved incidentally.

ASSUMPTION 4. *Attitudes and desires of children are of much more significance than are present knowledges and skills.* There is emerging, however, an even more child-centric-curriculum philosophy than that generally implied in the activity curriculum. According to this conception the curriculum must be controlled not so much by what information and skills the child is to learn in school as it is by how he feels about what he learns. The sponsors of this emerging curriculum do not take direct issue with any of the preceding conceptions. They would teach some subjects; they would be guided by social analyses; and they would decidedly depend on purposeful activities.

(1) They would point out, however, that while music or reading may be so taught as to benefit many pupils, some pupils doubtless learn to "hate" reading because of the unpleasant experience of learning to read, or to avoid singing because of their school music experiences.

(2) They question the results of the curriculum of facts and processes based on activity analyses. They point out that even pupils who are taught by the Morrison Mastery

Formula¹, the Courtis practice methods, and the Winnetka goal plan soon forget that in which they are supposed to be one hundred per cent perfect.

(3) They generally approve in principle the conception of an activity curriculum. They assert, however, that child activity cannot be instituted without the child's participation and that one cannot prophesy a year or more in advance what interests and stimulations and behaviors will prove satisfying to a thirteen-year-old boy at eleven-ten on Tuesday morning, April fourth.² Hence, the pupil's self-initiated activity curriculum must, in the nature of things, be developed from day to day. Only in rough outline, is a ready-made course of study feasible, if it is to be used as a basis for pupil activities

While the sponsors and practitioners of the curriculum emergent recognize varying validity in the above mentioned practices they are themselves committed to a curriculum of intrinsic subject matter. They see life as the child's curriculum. They seek to capitalize all that the child may learn in his home and neighborhood, at the movies and in the newspapers, at play and at work, in school and out, and in all seasons of the year. They seek, in a word, to help pupils to do better those desirable things which they are now doing and which their parents and other adults are now doing, by having the school reproduce within itself situations typical of and supplementary to social life. Through such life projects, the school may reenforce, guide, and direct the present and future interests and activities and standards of boys and girls in their youthful and adult communities.

In the curriculum emergent there is little fear that children will not learn enough. Such practices are based on

¹Cf. M. N. Funk, "A Comparative Study of the Results Obtained by the Method of Mastery Technique and the Method of Daily Recitation and Assignment" *The School Review*, XXXVI, 5, May, 1928

²Cf. R. B. Raup, "The Unit of Instruction and Study" *Journal of Educational Method*, VII, 3, December, 1927

the assumptions that if they are enlivened first, if they enjoy learning, if the adventure of discovery has an appeal, then they will spend their lives learning and investigating and reflecting and experimenting. In a word, the curriculum emergent involves the present satisfying practices of the social objectives themselves—home membership, citizenship, leisure-time activities, health practices, and, in a somewhat less conscious way, the attributes underlying vocational success and ethical character.

THE CURRICULUM AND THE COMMUNITY

In our classes, clubs, home rooms, committees, and assemblies, we meet the pupils in face-to-face groups. By controlling the inspirations, procedures, and rewards of these groups, we are able to affect the lives of pupils directly. But to do so, we must so organize and control our practices as to reënforce, guide, and direct the activities of the pupils not only in the group, but in their school membership and outside and beyond the school.

THE CURRICULUM AND THE DEMANDS OF THE COLLEGES

It is fear that holds us back—fear of college entrance requirements and fear of public criticism from those who may blame the school if their children do not get into college. This fear has a real enough basis, to be sure. But it is not often intelligently resolved.

If no formal algebra were taught until the tenth grade and then only to select pupils, all who were willing to pay the price could complete three units in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades. The few who needed four units could take two units in the eleventh or twelfth grades. If Latin, too, could be begun in the tenth grade, the few who insist on going to Bryn Mawr, Wells, Amherst, and Williams, if any, could take two units in the twelfth grade.

College entrance difficulties embarrass us only because we muddy up the water by various extraneous matters. If

only fifteen per cent of our senior-high-school pupils elected formal mathematics we could cover more ground, maintain high standards, and have few if any failures. This is equally true for English grammar, laboratory science, college-preparatory history, and foreign languages. Unfortunately, we have many teachers, under tenure, who cannot or will not teach anything but abstract mathematics and other college-preparatory subjects. So we encourage the election of such subjects by many pupils so as to furnish classes for these supernumeraries. And then when these ill-advised pupils fail, we and our teachers complain and fail them heartlessly.

WHAT OF THE FUTURE?

"'Let the dead Past bury its dead' would be a better saying if the Past ever died," says Galsworthy. "The persistence of the Past is one of the tragi-comic blessings which each new age denies, coming cocksure on to the stage to mouth its claim to perfect novelty." High-school education with all its novelty and embellishments has up to the present been unable to shake off the dead hand of formal requirements and traditional academic subject placement. Until and unless it does do so, it must fail to serve the youth and the democracy whose servant it is. Most of its difficulties are of its own making; they can be easily solved by reasonable energy and clear thinking. So may they be!

In the curriculum of the future each child will be helped to develop his individuality through positive successful contributions to the school, to his family, to his companions and employers, and to his community. For "individuality is not an original possession or gift," says Dewey. "It is something to be achieved, to be wrought out . . ." And it is to be wrought out through "that intellectual and emotional sharing in the life and affairs of men which embodies the spirit of the Golden Rule." This Bode sets up as the final goal of education.

SOCIAL LIFE OF THE CHILD OF JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL AGE

HARVEY D. DOUGLASS

The two greatest determining factors of social life are heredity and environment. As these two factors are so closely associated as to be inseparable, they should not be thought of as separate entities. However, it is necessary to give consideration to each in this paper.

HEREDITARY FACTORS

The factors which the child possesses by reason of heredity have been passed on to him by his ancestors. He had no choice or selection in the matter. Consequently he should not be held responsible for conditions resulting from hereditary factors. Race, chronological age, instincts, physical characteristics, mental capacity, primary emotions and feelings are hereditary factors.

In considering his race we must remember that the fact of race is social, but the concept of race is biological. Race is blamed for much that results from certain characteristics we have assigned to race due to our reaction to stimuli furnished by certain individuals of the race. Therefore, race as we know it is both social and biological. The individual is not inferior because of his biological race; neither is he superior for the same reason. Any inferiority or superiority we ascribe to race is due to the social group environment. That can be corrected. No stigma should be attached because of race.

The chronological age starts with the birth of the individual. As there are so many conditioning factors operating in conjunction with chronological age, it is relatively unimportant. Some of those factors made their contribution before the child was born. Some of them are more important than chronological age. It is more important to know

his mental age, even though that may be a group response. It is also necessary to know his anatomical age, physiological age, school age, and social age if we are to understand his conduct from a sociological point of view. The normal chronological age of the child in junior high school, which will not differ much from his school age, should be twelve years for the seventh grade, thirteen for the eighth grade, and fourteen for the ninth. If there is no more than two years variation either way, but little, if any, attention should be given to it. But if the child is more than two years, chronologically, ahead of his grade, he is accelerated; if more than two years behind, he is retarded. In either case he should be given special attention.

The instincts have been reduced to four. There is evidence that the number may be further reduced or the term discontinued entirely, due to their being distributed according to later analyses. Or they may be trends due to prepotent reflexes. The four considered are sex, hunger, struggle, and repulsion. Even these must be considered in the light of present analyses when analyzing the social conduct of the child.

Mental capacity is largely determined before birth. In some manner not yet understood, it is passed on through the germ plasm of the parents. Mental capacity is largely developed by the time the child is four years of age. Thus the nourishment the child receives during the preschool period, that is, from birth to four years of age, may make or mar him as far as mental capacity is concerned. Thus we are much concerned that the child shall receive proper nourishment during the preschool period of his life. Also, his social conduct will be greatly influenced by his mental capacity.

Social conduct cannot be understood, interpreted, or appreciated without a knowledge of the primary emotions. Otherwise we cannot understand the response of the indi-

vidual to stimuli. If he is nonemotional, cold, unsympathetic, he will develop into an adult quite apt to be dangerous to society. The goal of the group action of the school should be opposite; viz., perpetuate conditions necessary to the progress of civilization.

Now we come to the other conditioning factor in the environment. This may be directed by education.

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

The social life of the child is influenced by his physical environment. This consists of anything in the physical world influenced by man. As soon as it is changed by man it becomes physico-social. The physical environment is the geographic, as climate, topography, etc. The physico-social may be illustrated by purified air, contaminated water, especially that contaminated by man.

The biological environment is plant and animal life before man has changed it by biological processes. The original plants and animals are found in this class.

The social environment is that produced by man in association with his fellows. It is a group process. Man's social life lies in this. This environment must be developed after the others. It is the most important in its influence as it is unlimited by time or space. It extends from the temporary to the permanent, from the near to the remote, from the present to the ancient.

The divisions of the social environment are physico-social, bio-social, and psycho-social.

Under the social, we must know the child's home environment, play environment, church environment, and school environment; that is, his environmental associates and conditions. His philosophy of life—religion—and, in fact, his inmost thoughts would come under the psycho-social. Some of these may be learned from his dreams. But we must win

the confidence of the child in order to learn some of the psycho-social factors that are conditioning his conduct.

ANALYSES

To do the best for the child we must analyze his conduct from the above points of view. We must educate him so that he may be provided with the best and be enabled to use it according to his capacity. Case study is sometimes necessary. In this way it is possible to cause some of the major problems of society largely to disappear.

The child of junior-high-school age in Michigan may be a member of any of the so-called races.

His chronological age may range from an accelerated case of less than ten years of age to over seventeen years of age in the ninth grade, under which condition he will be retarded. A mental test will indicate the mental age, and an intelligence test his mental capacity. An educational (standard achievement) test will indicate his school age. Only a physical examination by an expert will indicate his anatomical and physiological ages. Other tests have been formulated to give his emotional reaction. A knowledge of these factors is necessary.

His physical environment in this area consists of the geographic factors of the Great Lakes region of the North Temperate zone. The influence of these factors is but little drawn.

His bio-social environment is his contacts with the industrial world or with those factors resulting from it.

We must look for the conditions that influence his health, especially in the home, in the matter of provision for fresh air, pure water, and nourishing food, as well as in suitable clothing.

In his social life we should look to his playmates, both organized and unorganized, the group with which he asso-

ciates. It is the age when organized games with plenty of novelty is vital; the age when habits of life—spiritual, occupational, and recreational—are being formed; the age when the best things should be provided.

SOME CONCLUSIONS

Education at this age should provide for individual contributions to the group; his trends should be learned, and the environment given that will promote his special aptitudes. This is the place for the play director, Boy Scouts, diversified course of study, so-called individual selection, to be given tests and directions. Here is where the expert can do some fine work that the higher capacities may reach fruition.

THE SOCIAL FAILURE OF TEACHERS

JOSEPH C. McELHANNON

If education is a social enterprise, then the civilization of the future will bear a close resemblance to the teachers of the present. Like teacher, like school; like school, like the boys and girls who come out of it. The men and the women who have accepted the responsibility of teaching the children of the people determine the social effectiveness of the schools. While there may be a high correlation between the social efficiency of the teacher and his professional training, school boards and patrons need to weigh other qualities in teachers than degrees, scholarship, and professional preparation.

Education is now regarded as a life process. The school is maintained as an agency for socializing boys and girls and it is our only institution which is operated solely for educational purposes. It must, therefore, assume responsibility for every type of education which is profitable to boys and girls. The complexity of modern life makes it obligatory upon the school to take upon itself the task of training along many lines hitherto claimed by the home, church, state, and society in general. The teacher cannot emphasize a discipline and impose an artificial culture different from that encountered in daily life. Daily life is now made up of the interests of all the people. It is easy to see, therefore, the possible effect of a lack of social-mindedness in a teacher upon a community.

The teacher has grown up in a psychologically minded age. The educator is interested in the individual. Every effort in the school is made to develop the self-expression of the pupil. The entire machinery of the school is fashioned for the training of the individual. True, there are extracurricular activities, but, up to the present, the student is given to understand that they are extra. The em-

phasis is put upon the dictum that learning is individual. It is not strange, therefore, that the teacher is largely ego-centric in her understandings, ideals, and attitudes. Learning exists for learning's sake. The school is the conservator of the past. Education has for its aim the self-expression of the pupil. All of which dictate an academic, individual difference in procedure in the schoolroom and a withdrawal of interest from the community where social work needs to be done.

No one would deny that the problems dealing with the teaching personnel are complex. Yet the public as well as the teachers themselves must be interested in them. It is true that a community has no better schools, teachers, and educational outcomes than it collectively desires. In many places, schools are merely kept, teachers are poorly prepared, the objectives of modern education are not recognized, the children are disciplined to some extent in the academic mannerisms of civilizations now dead, and they do not recognize the social implications of education at all.

My first notice of the gross failure of teachers in their social relationship to pupils and to community came about in the following manner: Having charge of the teacher-placement work in a denominational college for girls, which prepares and places each year a large number of young women in responsible teaching positions, I tried to follow up each one placed for at least one year. A duplex postal card was used, which was very easy to check by superintendents, principals, and school-board members. It required a minimum of time on their part. From 1923 to 1928 reports were received on 893 teachers. These teachers had completed work ranging from the freshman to the senior year at college and had had different periods of experience in teaching. There were reports on 392 freshmen, 271 sophomores, 181 juniors, and 149 seniors. The data asked for were returned on a card (*see* page 537).

TABLE I

EFFICIENCY REPORT OF 893 TEACHERS, 1923-1928

Miss			
	<i>Poor</i>	<i>Satisfactory</i>	<i>Excellent</i>
Instruction	135	624	134
Industry	172	701	120
Discipline	201	530	162
Adaptability	93	762	138
Sociability	74	798	21
Community Service.....	482	366	45
Church Service... ..	522	315	56
Remarks			
Signed.....	Address.....		

Note. The card used in the report has the tabulated replies on it.

It is manifest to the trained surveyor of social institutions or to the investigator of the teaching personnels of schools that the untrained superintendent, principal, or school-board member would have difficulty in estimating the correct quality or degree of instruction, industry, discipline, adaptability, and sociability in teachers. The terms are not standardized and there is a vast range of opinion concerning their meaning. On the other hand, almost any one can properly estimate with a considerable degree of accuracy the efficiency of the teacher in community and in church relationships.

The poor showing of the girls of this college in community service and in church relationships is explained partially by these facts: About twenty-five per cent of the teachers live in villages and towns and teach in country places from five to fifteen miles from their homes. They return to their homes over the week-ends where they may attend church. In many instances, the community does not offer an opportunity for service on the part of the teacher unless the teacher assumes the initiative and brings about community activities. There are some places, also, in which there are no churches. The teacher would be compelled to go over into another community or school district to attend

church or to teach in a Sunday school. Under such circumstances, it would be rather difficult for the teacher to develop a rather large social-mindedness along the last two lines.

When the factors outlined above, within themselves mitigating, are accounted for, the evidence is still overwhelming against the teachers as to their relationship to the communities where they teach. When 54 per cent of teachers do not in any way identify themselves with the people where they teach and 58 per cent fail to attend or accept service in the churches, the deduction can be easily made that the object of teaching is economic rather than social. Teaching ceases to be a service rendered. Every teacher owes it to the children taught to engage in community activities. A teacher is not compelled to engage in political or financial enterprises, to express personal opinions contrary to the traditions and customs of the community, to launch sensational activities of any kind in order to attract attention to herself. She should be interested in every social, moral, civic, religious, and industrial movement present or initiated by the citizenship. In cases of community inertia, where the children and patrons would benefit, where the situation activated would not interfere with the teacher's dignity or self-respect, she is morally bound to give herself and her knowledge to the limit. Service is the keynote of her job whether it is social or economic, else the community contracting for her services has been cheated.

When one analyzes the "satisfactory" column of Table I, he comes to realize the real significance of the status of the teacher's social relationship to the community. It is obvious that the teachers placed in the "excellent" column are those about whom there is favorable community discussion. They have impressed their personalities upon the communities because of their social activities. Probably a good job is made of only one activity. The unusualness of that is sufficient for the approval of the community group.

On the other hand, if the teacher attends church now and then, visits some in the community, and, above all, does not attract criticism because of her comings and goings, she is looked upon as being satisfactory. This is indeed a negative recommendation. The real significance of the measurement as far as social-mindedness is concerned should be undoubtedly "poor." Such a teacher rarely does anything for the community. By the same kind of analysis, we should conclude that most of the teachers placed in the "excellent" column are only "satisfactory."

The "remarks" at the bottom of the cards are much more eloquent concerning the social situation than the tabulated data. In most cases where the teacher was checked as poor, she was not reelected to the position which she held the year before. In such cases, indication of the fact was made and a statement was given concerning the teacher. A direct relationship was indicated between inefficiency in instruction and industry and community interests and religious service. Among the causes listed for failure in social service on the part of teachers were: Getting in a waiting automobile at four o'clock and riding until late in the evening, absent from Friday afternoon until Monday morning, hieing away a hundred miles to a questionable dance or to a city movie, receiving the attention of the larger boys of the school, lack of interest in anything pertaining to the community or to the church, and sensational activity of some kind.

TABLE II
SOCIAL EFFICIENCY OF RURAL, VILLAGE, AND CITY TEACHERS, IN
PERCENTAGES

	Community Interests			Religious Interests		
	Poor	Satisfactory	Excellent	Poor	Satisfactory	Excellent
Less than 500 people	41	52	7	43	50	7
Less than 2500 people	64	39	1	58	40	2
Over 2500 people	57	40	3	61	38	1

It is interesting to note that teachers in the rural schools are more socially efficient than those of the towns and cities.

Teachers in the towns are less socially minded than those in the cities. It is difficult to account for these differences. The absence of lures of towns and cities such as movies, automobiles, "society," cold drink stands. The seriousness of the social situation, ambition on the part of the beginner to make good, the challenge of the job in the country may be classed as reasons for the better social efficiency of the teacher. The advantage of the city over the small town for social-mindedness may be found in the stratification of society, the lack of social opportunity for pleasure and for accomplishment because the business leaders are the initiating forces. In the smaller towns and villages there are usually a few social groups. Their interests are largely the same. There are many more young women than young men on account of the industrial demands of the cities. The teacher is usually accepted into all social circles in the town. The socially undesirable men are at a premium there because of the scarcity, and the senior school boys are socially eligible. The young woman teacher is often swept from all social, moral, and religious moorings. In a system of from ten to twenty teachers, often seventy-five per cent have to be replaced every year. The teaching is poor; the social bearing in teaching methods is entirely lacking. These schools are merely kept. Colleges and universities attest to the fact that the graduates of this class of schools are among the very poorest admitted. In the village and town schools more of the teaching force marry during the year of their itinerancy or the year after they are dismissed than in the country and city schools combined.

TABLE III
EFFICIENCY OF FRESHMEN, SOPHOMORES, JUNIORS, AND SENIOR TEACHERS

	Community Interests			Church Interests		
	Poor	Satisfactory	Excellent	Poor	Satisfactory	Excellent
392 Freshmen	42%	40%	12%	44%	50%	6%
271 Sophomores	56	40	4	49	44	7
181 Juniors	56	42	2	56	42	2
149 Seniors	53	43	4	56	42	2

Being younger and having had less experience it would naturally be expected that teachers having completed the freshman year in college would be less socially minded than graduates, juniors, and sophomores. The data furnished by the questionnaire used in this study, however, does not bear out such an observation. Usually the data reveal that the freshman teacher is not as good an instructor, is not as adaptable, and has considerably more trouble with disciplinary problems than teachers with more educational and professional preparation, yet she attends church more regularly, teaches in the Sunday School more often than her older sisters. She identifies herself with the community more effectively. More often the freshman teacher is found in the rural community, where there is probably a better opportunity for the teacher to view her job from a social standpoint, where boards of trustees more closely supervise her comings and goings, where the beginner is confronted seriously with the problem of succeeding.

There is probably a better social opportunity for success in the town school than in any other type of community. Such places are usually incorporated. Streets, lights, water, heating, police, health departments are maintained. Rotary, Kiwanis, Lions clubs, Chamber of Commerce, Sunday Schools, women's church societies, and local politics are all close to the people. There is an organization for every interest. Boy Scouts and Campfire Girls, Parent Teachers Associations, and Volunteer Fire departments challenge local enterprise and social cooperation. Mass meetings enlist the interest and initiative of any one even remotely socially inclined. There is easy access to and even urgent demand for teacher participation in scores of community enterprises. The teachers investigated in this study did not choose to enter them. Professor Emery R. Ferris finds that the curriculum and the teaching in the

town schools are more traditional than in larger schools.¹ Is it because the school constituency is more conservative, more inclined to walk in the trodden paths, or because the teachers are less socially minded? The curriculum may be accounted for by the presence of the first factor, but the teachers should be held strictly to account for the absence of socialized teaching.

In town and village communities, the school boards and superintendents of schools often ape city schools in not placing any restrictions on teachers. Only the contract in which the time of employment and the salary per month or per term are set forth is the tie that binds. There is no supervision of the teaching as in the larger city system. Superintendents and principals are usually very young, just out of college, and possessed with the newer ideas of individual freedom and personal liberty. They convince school boards that restrictions on the teachers are ancient customs and very much antiquated in use. The teachers are poorly paid anyway, and one more insult is an added injury. Not having the social concept of the school themselves, they believe that the teacher's sole duty is to teach the book; that the purpose of the school is to give the teacher employment; and that the community will get far more than its money's worth when the teachers have met their classes. With a prideful magnanimity, the school head smiles upon his teachers' social delinquencies, but he goes to church and belongs to a service club for the prestige which they may give him. This is especially true in communities where the school board recommends and elects teachers and, on account of community protests, fails to reelect them under such antisocial conditions. It cannot be wondered that teachers fail to recognize that teaching is a social process as well as a social objective.

Of 343 teachers not reelected, the following reasons are set forth in the remarks by those making the reports. In

¹Ferre, *Secondary Education in Country and Village*, p. 25

some cases more than one reason is given. In many cases only general reasons are supplied. At any rate, the glaring significance of the meaning of the data in Table IV is enough to benumb the socially minded who smugly sit in their classrooms and offices and look at the teacher of the present day through their glasses of professional idealism.

TABLE IV

REASONS WHY TEACHERS ARE NOT REELECTED

310	They did not work at the job.
191	They were not identified with the community.
126	They were more interested in the town sheiks.
82	They did not coöperate with the principal.
79	They frowned upon church and Sunday School.
60	They did not know the subjects taught.
53	They left Friday and returned Monday to their work
22	They were grossly immoral.

Many of the reasons for dismissal of teachers indicated may not have been correctly founded. Some unjust dismissals were likely made, yet these were far overbalanced by cases where the just hand of the school board was not lifted. School boards and school men are conservative. It often takes a great deal of aggravation on the part of a teacher before any action is taken. Public sentiment is still more conservative or perhaps sentimental. A teacher far below mediocre can hold on to a point where a real business concern would have taken action months or years before. The community invites the social, civic, moral, and religious results in its children and future citizens, the bases for which are regnant in the practice, methods, and activities of the teachers which it employs.

The public must concern itself with the type of men and women most responsible for molding correct social ideals in its children, the future citizens. It must also demand of its agents, the school boards, that the superintendents and principals be socially minded. Traditional methods of

teaching for the purpose of instilling knowledge, skills, and individual habits or traits of character must annex the additional aim of socializing the individual and training him for social participation. Teachers should concern themselves with definite preparation to teach boys and girls group solidarity, the cultivation of social attitudes, ideals, adaptability, and team work, and point out to them opportunities for social participation in the community where they live. But first teachers must identify themselves with every worth-while community enterprise where a needed interest is absent. Tactfully and discreetly, the teacher is obligated to initiate that interest.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department, titles—and, where possible, descriptions—of current research projects now in process in educational sociology, and also those projects in kindred fields of interest to educational sociology. Correspondence upon proposed projects and methods will be welcomed

A STUDY OF THE EDUCATIVE EFFECTS OF NONEDUCATIVE AGENCIES

Professor F. R. Clow of the Wisconsin State Teachers College presented a report on the above subject at the joint session of the American Sociological Society with the National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology at Chicago on Friday, December 28, 1928.

Professor Clow found that the time spent in bed of school children at Oshkosh, Wisconsin, decreased from ten hours and four minutes for fifth graders to eight hours and forty-four minutes for high-school seniors. Other occupations under control of the home, such as meals, toilet, sickness, and care of health makes the home responsible for much over half of the child's time. Doing school work at home increases gradually from grade five to eight and rapidly in the high school. Useful work at home is most prominent in the fifth and sixth grades. Outdoor recreation and energetic activity fall off in the high school. The movies take about an equal place with the church in the child's spare-time activities, while shopping and mere roaming the streets or neighborhood are large items.¹

Professor Clow describes the methods of the investigation giving the above results as follows:

"The investigations at Oshkosh, Wisconsin, into non-school educational agencies began by getting returns from

¹Manual of Abstracts (of the papers read at the Twenty-Third Annual Meeting of The American Sociological Society), p. 34

all the schools of the city for a single afternoon and evening. Members of the sociology class at the State Teachers College assisted in getting the returns and in compiling the results. But it was soon found necessary to have the compiling all done by one person; also to have the returns made out by one room at a time, always under the direction of the same person. The pupils were supplied with sheets of paper and were asked to list their occupations for the preceding twenty-four hours except for the time spent in school, giving the time by the clock, as nearly as they can recollect, when each occupation was begun. Returns for Saturdays and vacations were obtained at the earliest opportunity after the subsequent opening of the school. The compiler then found the amount of time spent at each occupation."

A STUDY OF DIVISIVE FACTORS IN COMMUNITY CENTERS

Miss Marie G. Merrill,¹ supervisor of community centers, Board of Education, Chicago, Illinois, has recently completed a study of the divisive factors in community centers. She describes the methods pursued in her study as follows:

"Not all community-center councils have constant conflict or even serious differences. But there are or may any time appear divisive factors in the community life.

"The first condition to consider is the geographical layout of the community. Here will be found the dividing railroad tracks and similar factors.

"In finding other troublesome factors I usually used the method of testing the material in the organization to find the nature and action of the several parts of the group. The parts are separated and analyzed much as chemicals in a test tube

"And then I compared divisive factors in two types of communities to see how much they resemble each other. The 'organization' here attacks as does the 'gang' there but not always as swiftly and neatly.

¹Miss Merrill made a report on her study in the joint session of the American Sociological Society and the National Community Center Association in Chicago, on December 26, 1928.

"Of course we dare not ignore the social divisions. When Will Rogers was asking about the home town, he wanted to know which had the most votes then—the North or the South side. 'The North Side seems to have the most money but it only owes the most.' "

EDUCATIONAL BULLETINS

The Bulletins of the Bureau of Education of 1906 to 1927 are listed in Bulletin No. 17, which is indexed by author, title, and subject. These Bulletins are important research resources for educational sociology. The authors of Bulletin No. 17 (1928) are Edith A. Wright and Mary S. Phillips of the Bureau of Education.

The Bureau of Education has issued a Bulletin (No. 22, 1928) entitled "Bibliography of Research Studies of Education for 1906 to 1927." The publication was prepared in the Library Division of the Bureau of Education under the direction of John D. Wolcott, chief. This study lists research studies in education under Educational History, Educational Biography, Current Educational Conditions, International Aspects of Education, Educational Theory and Practice, Educational Psychology, Child Study, Educational Sociology, Psychological Tests, Educational Tests and Measurements, Educational Research, Individual Differences, Special Methods of Instruction, Special Subjects and Curriculum, Kindergarten and Preschool Education, Elementary Education, Secondary Education, Teachers' Training, Teachers' Salaries and Professional Status, Higher Education, School Administration, School Management, School Buildings and Equipment, Health Education and Supervision, Physical Training, Play and Recreation, Social Aspects of Education, Rural Education, Moral Education, Religious and Church Education, Manual and Vocational Training, Educational and Vocational Guidance, Agriculture, Home Economics, Commercial Education, Professional Education, Civic Education, Military Education,

Education of Women, Education of Racial Groups, Education of Blind and Deaf, Exceptional Children, Education Extension, Libraries and Reading, and Publications of the United States Bureau of Education.

Each study is listed by authors, title, date, and agency in connection with which the study is made. In most cases a brief description of the method and result of each study is given.

The following research studies in educational sociology are listed:

- Day, James Frank: *The Economic Aims of Education*
Hockett, John A.: *A Determination of the Major Social Problems of American Life*
Landis, Benson Y.: *Professional Codes: A Sociological Analysis to Determine Applications to the Educational Profession*
Mullins, Marian: *An Annotated Bibliography of Educational Sociology*
Roe, Chingie Yhan, *The Free Function of Education in Social Adjustment*
Vaughan, Lilah M.: *Some Sociological Aspects of American Industrial Leadership*

Attention may also be called to the titles listed under *Play and Recreation* and *Social Aspects of Education*.

A Bulletin of the Bureau of Education (No. 19, 1928), by David T. Blose has been issued on "Statistics of Education of the Negro Race, 1925-1926."

BOOK REVIEWS

Middletown: A Study in Contemporary American Culture,
by ROBERT S. LYND and HELEN MERRELL LYND.
New York: Harcourt Brace and Company, 1929.
550 pages.

Perhaps the most important intellectual achievement of our generation is our ability to detach ourselves from our culture—to stand it off and regard it objectively. Ethnologists and sociologists have been examining the cultures of other peoples in such fashion for a half century, but have only begun to give us an equally objective interpretation of our own culture. *Middletown* is, as Wissler remarks in his introduction, "a pioneer attempt to deal with a sample American community after the manner of social anthropology."

Middletown, with its thirty-odd thousand population, was selected as the subject of the study because it seemed to be thoroughly representative of the American small city at large. The authors, with their research staff, set out to study the culture of this contemporary American city as they would have that of a Bantu village. The materials are organized about "Middletown's" habits of getting a living, making a home, training the young, using leisure time, engaging in religious practices, and engaging in community activities. The life of "Middletown" today is contrasted throughout with that of the "Middletown" of the nineties. As a result we have not merely an analysis of the cultural traits of the "Middletown" of today, but an account of how many of these traits have come into being.

Middletown is the most significant document in the sociological literature of the community. It will prove invaluable in giving students a feeling for culture and a sense of the community. It fills in the gap between the fairly extensive literature of the rural and large city communities. No other book, perhaps, so adequately delineates the social background against which the school must function. It throws much light upon the processes of cultural change out of which our social problems arise, and should provoke much discussion as to how education may function in controlling cultural change. But above all it cannot fail to increase our objectivity in considering the social life of which we are a part.

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH

School Training of Gifted Children, by HENRY W. GODDARD. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company, 1928. 219 pages.

The book presents in very readable form the first-hand observations of the author on his visits to gifted classes in Cleveland where an interest in gifted children has flourished since 1920. One important contribution of the book is that it shows the selection and special treatment of gifted children to be entirely practicable in a public-school system. The selection rests on the use of standardized intelligence tests but everywhere the author points out that the level of intelligence at which a child should be regarded as gifted is an arbitrary concept. Consequently, practice in Cleveland has tended to include only I. Q.'s above 120 in special classes, but reasonable latitude exercised by the school authorities permits students of I. Q.'s between 110 and 120 to be admitted to the special groups. Exceptional treatment of the gifted, with reference to their teachers, the physical appearance and atmosphere of their classrooms, and the enrichment of their course of study, is thoroughly discussed by the author who is obviously enthusiastic about this aspect of public-school education. A brief but serviceable bibliography is appended to the discussion.

We are perhaps warranted in considering with closer scrutiny the special treatment of the gifted advocated by the author. The teachers of the gifted are to be possessed of ten virtues (1) Experience with normal children; (2) open-mindedness in attacking a new problem; (3) understanding of children; (4) self-control; (5) understanding of the project method, (6) happy dispositions and good health, (7) beauty and reasonable attention to matters of dress, (8) intellectual modesty; (9) disciplinary ability; (10) a broad-minded view of what education really is. The classroom provided for gifted children must have pleasant furnishings—carpets, curtains, movable seats—"more homelike and more suitable for the education of youth than the old-fashioned classroom", it must have an "atmosphere of real life." The necessary atmosphere is further described as having no formality, no regularity, no silence or formal discipline. The method of teaching is by means of the socialized recitation. Enrichment of the curriculum includes field trips, getting up a play or a circus with costumes and all, extensive reading, the presence of a typewriter in the classroom and encouragement to use it, and a variety of interesting projects derived from history, nature study, art, and manual training. Now, this is ideally the type of education we should like to provide for every child the world over.

We are not at present clearly justified in considering gifted children so definitely set off from other children as to deserve classrooms, teachers, and methods that are too special. Research has not proved that the gifted alone are capable of learning under the pleasant circumstances described above, while normal and subnormal children must be held

rigidly to the old-fashioned classroom and the old-fashioned formal routine. So far as we know, there is no significant sense in which the high I. Q.'s are "special" except in their increased capacity for abstract thinking which in itself varies greatly among them. No one questions that gifted children should have a curriculum enriched to tax their capacities and to hold them to a high level of performance. No one denies that they should have teachers who understand their capacities and interests, just as normal and subnormal children should have teachers who understand them. But pleasant ways of learning, as well as pleasant classrooms, are not necessarily the divine right of gifted children. Perhaps the greatest good to be derived from our discovery of the intellectually gifted is our experimentation with new aspects of the learning process. In that, there is the hope of our finding new educational procedures applicable to all ranges of intellectual endowment.

AGNES CONKLIN

Growing Into Life, by DAVID SEABURY. New York: Boni and Liveright, 1928. 715 pages.

The psychiatrist learns from cases as all good practitioners do. There is much to be discovered about the ways of life and living which is not yet down in the books! *Growing Into Life* comes directly out of case study. Its conclusions are the results of wide personal experiences with individuals. The problems that confront youth, the fears that beat them down because of ignorance, the forces of antagonism in family and social groups which at times shatter the slender hold on life itself, these become real as the individual cases march across the seven hundred pages of this moving story, and the organization of cases is such that instead of a bewildering welter of fated suffering, one is permitted to see the rise of principle and law governing each as cause and as possible cure.

This is a hidden region naturally. On the surface of things youth is serene and untroubled. It is the law of his pride that he shall conceal, and even when the crash comes, and, often too late, the psychiatrist or the physician is called upon, the public, including teachers, parents, and his own mates are never made aware of the commonness of mental illness among the young nor of the blame that lies heavily at the door of those, again parents, teachers, and associates, who all ignorantly, and often with the highest of moral motives, have brought on the personal catastrophe.

Seabury piles up his cases, points out the causal factors in individual and social relationships, shows the way out in pictured illustrations from actual interviews, and, finally, gathers the whole together in a summing up which he fervently calls "The Magna Charta of Youth."

The layman will not find this volume either uninteresting or beyond him. Primarily it is meant for the nonprofessional reader, for it is the uninformed adult who is mainly responsible, so runs the thesis of the

book, for most of the ills that youth is arbitrarily and unnecessarily made heir to. Consequently there is a complete glossary of all the modern psychiatric terms from "introvert" and "extrovert," so much in vogue now in the conversation of up-to-date young persons, to "heterosexuality" and "dipsomania," which have lately occupied the attention, respectively, of the stage and the police.

HUGHES MEARNS

Class Size at the College Level, by EARL HUDELSON. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1928. 173 pages.

Ever since the days of Galileo experimentation at any level has been classed among hazardous occupations. But when it sets in at the college level and proposes to deal with college teaching problems, *caveat emptor*. This matter of hazard, however, has not deterred the University of Minnesota from turning the artillery of research upon its own problems; and Professor Hudelson's book records the results of a four-year program of investigation with the problem of class size.

This program is proposed to investigate the following: (1) the attitudes of students and faculty towards class size; (2) to visit classes and analyze procedure, (3) study trends in class size; (4) study effects of class size upon achievement; (5) carry out these experiments in as many colleges and departments as possible; (6) to study size in relation to costs.

Fifty-nine experiments were carried out, involving 108 classes under 21 instructors in eleven different departments. These experiments involved 6,059 students—4,205 in large classes, 1,854 in small. Direct man-to-man comparisons were made upon 1,288 pairs of students, carefully matched as to intelligence and scholarship. The final criterion was student achievement as measured by tests and examinations, most of which were objective.

The results of this elaborate program showed that in 46 of the 59 experiments (or 78 per cent), a more or less decided advantage accrued to the paired students in the large sections. Only in the remaining 13 experiments (or 22 per cent) was there any advantage in favor of the smaller classes. At every intelligence level, as well as at every scholarship level, the paired students in the large sections excelled their mates in the small sections.

Experiments designed to determine optimum techniques for classes of various sizes were made in physics and education. The results showed a tendency of weaker students in small sections to lean rather heavily upon their instructors and raised the question also as to whether instructional procedures in either large or small classes are as influential as is commonly supposed. It is, however, pertinent to inquire, at this point,

whether there may not be other important educational outcomes—other than scholastic achievement—that might accrue from using different methods in both large and small classes. This raises the whole question of objectives in the field of higher education—a domain still open to the homesteader and the pioneer.

Experiments dealing with class size in relation to instructional costs showed that such costs ranged from \$2.83 per student in large classes to \$36.27 in small classes in the same subject.

A study of this sort comes at this time, like the catastrophe in the old comedy—most opportunely. Not only educational costs but the whole question of mass education at higher levels is at stake. If we are to take the people—including the taxpayer—with us in education, we shall have to produce something more convincing than student preference or faculty opinion on this question of class size. Then, too, the question of educational method is seriously involved. As one reads these experiments the idea emerges that there may be a danger in small classes of relieving the student too much from his proper responsibilities as a learner. In the larger classes he is thrown more upon his own. It is possible in small classes to waste much time in aimless discussion. On the other hand, the technique of conducting large classes by the discussion method has been mastered by few university teachers. Professor Hudelson cites Kilpatrick, of Columbia, on this question and then yields the whole point by saying "Kilpatrick may be an exception." Undoubtedly, he is an exception; but are there to be no great men after Agamemnon?

JOHN O. CREAGER

Socializing the Pupil Through Extracurricular Activities,
by THOMAS M. DEAM and OLIVE M. BEAR. New
York: Benjamin H. Sanborn Company, 1928 295
pages

The authors of *Socializing the Pupil Through Extracurricular Activities* believe that boys and girls learn to do by doing. They believe that extracurricular activities serve to give young people the opportunity to develop and practice those social traits that must be exercised for effective citizenship in adult life.

The text deals with the extracurricular activities as an aid in socializing, or the total education, of the pupil. The authors recognize the overlapping of the so-called extracurricular and curricular activities of the school and the difficulties of measuring the values of the former. It is their conviction, however, that all club activities of the school ordinarily grouped under the head of extracurricular may be made, under proper control and intelligent guidance, to supplement the curricular program and thus to contribute materially to the accepted objectives of

education. The special-interest clubs, such as a music club, a dramatic or a poetry club, are used as illustrations.

In discussing interscholastic activities and especially athletic contests, the authors have pointed out the increasing and absorbing interest, not alone in the schools but by the public in general. They rightly question the outcome of the present inflated interest in athletics, and the means and methods employed to sustain it—especially by the public press. Overemphasis in the importance of winning games, in many sections of the country, has brought in dangers and evils which have threatened to divert the real value of athletics as a part of physical education into channels that are positively harmful. To offset this overemphasis, the schools in many sections have set up standards for awards and honors, including other qualifications such as character, leadership, and service. The National Honor Society serves as an example of effort in this direction. Since this is largely a social problem the schools must find some other way of setting up proper controls that will eliminate the evils without destroying the benefits.

Less spectacular, but perhaps more important, are the socializing programs of many kinds in which the modern school may engage. For example, the school publications, the assembly, school exhibits, programs for special days and weeks, and the local newspapers furnish almost unlimited opportunities for cooperation and participation. Effort in this direction brings the pupil to a realization of the interest of the public in school enterprises and serves to socialize both. In discussing the possibilities in this field, the authors show resourcefulness that is refreshing.

R. F. PERRY

Brain and Mind or the Nervous System of Man, by R. J. A. BERRY, M.D., F.R.C.S. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1928. 608 pages.

Here is a highly technical presentation of the anatomy, cellular structure, and function of the nervous system, with profuse microphotographic illustrations. Dr. Berry's text supports his prefatory statement that (in his belief) psychology can maintain its position among the sciences only if it has a sound biological basis. And he is quite successful in his development of this basic approach, perhaps because of the wealth of illustration, perhaps because of the thoroughness with which every topic is discussed.

Of unusual interest to the student of mental phenomena is the last quarter of Dr. Berry's book, in which he engages in a discussion of nerve impulse or energy and its relation to sleep, dreams, emotion, amnesia, and dementia. Dr. Berry points out that all parts of the cortical area do not fall asleep at the same instant and that many nerve centers do not sleep at all. Hence it is possible, he maintains, for nerve

impulses to travel their neuronic pathways uninhibited, during sleep, and to produce sensations in those areas not yet asleep. These sensations are the foundations of dreams. Dr. Berry recites an instance of a dream and its physiological causes which he holds up in contrast to the type of interpretation that Drs Jung and Freud might be inclined to give of the same dream.

In his half chapter on emotion, Dr. Berry attempts no explanation of emotional phenomena, no discussion of the claims of Drs Schlapp, Grimburg, *et al*, that the emotions are rooted in the endocrine glands. He says, simply, that any attempt to discover the truth about emotions cannot afford to neglect the neurological factors involved. His clinical diagnosis of amentia and dementia are brief, to the point, and engrossing.

IRVING ASTRACHAN

Justice First, by JOHN A. LAPP New York: Century Company, 1928. 185 pages.

Here is another excellent work so poorly named that the reader is entirely misled by the title *Justice First*. One naturally assumes that the book has to do with legal justice, but such is not the case. It is a treatise on economic injustice or poverty. It is written by a man of wide executive experience in the field of social work, a prolific writer and a successful teacher. The seventeen chapters of the book are in the main the text of addresses delivered while Dr Lapp was president of the National Conference of Social Work. This has been allowed to constitute somewhat of a handicap, for the reader is faced with the impression that the chapters are not addressed to him but once were addressed to since departed audiences.

Naturally, Dr. Lapp discusses the subject from the standpoint of the practical social worker. He starts with asking "why are there poor?" and ends with his concept of social justice. The book is both stimulating and valuable.

C G DITTMER

Lectures on Conditioned Reflexes, by IVAN PAVLOV. New York: International Publishers, 1928. 414 pages.

Ivan Pavlov is a world-wide figure in science. A physiologist, his years of research on the conditioned reflex (at the Institute of the Brain in Moscow) have not only contributed enormously to our knowledge of the physiology of the nervous system but have had a pervasive influence on modern psychology and sociology. The work of such American experimenters as Watson and Lashley had its direct stimulus in Pavlov's work. The conditioned reflex has been accepted as basic to all learning. Pavlov has written widely, but for the first time, in this volume, his

point of view and findings are presented in an organized fashion and in his own words in English. The volume includes a biographical sketch of Pavlov, and an interesting description of his laboratories, as well as a detailed discussion of his experiments.

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH

Readings in Public Opinion, Edited by W. BROOKE GRAVES.
New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1928. 1281
pages.

Any science in its earlier stages is dependent for its development upon two types of workers, namely, those who are willing to devote themselves unreservedly to the research phase of its development and those who gather together, edit, and interpret the literature in the field of the science. Sociology at the present time is greatly in need of both types of workers. The teacher is indebted to both and is dependent upon them, but he relies most directly upon the latter, therefore, whenever a student brings together a volume of material such as that gathered by Professor Graves he has won the lasting appreciation of the teachers of sociology. Moreover, the publishers have won the gratitude and appreciation of every sociologist for bringing out the book.

The mere mention of the topics included in the thirty-four chapters of this book and the more than 1200 pages would carry us beyond the limit of our space and would indicate the enormity of the task performed by the author. The book includes the writings of most of the important contributors to the various aspects of public opinion and its formation in the United States, carefully arranged with keen critical comment in the form of introductory statements to each of the chapters. Moreover, at the end of each chapter, is found a list of review questions and topics for further investigation and discussion, that are invaluable to the teacher and student. The author at all times has in mind the student and the teacher, and both are deeply indebted to him for the skill he has demonstrated in bringing together material that is both essential and readable. The book is neatly bound and printed and will serve an indispensable purpose for teaching and research.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Dr. John W. Withers, dean of the School of Education of New York University, addressed the high-school principals' section of the Ohio State University Educational Conference held at Columbus the first week in April upon the topic of the social challenge of the high-school curriculum.

Mr. Augustus Ludwig, principal of Junior High School 220, Brooklyn, was reelected president of the Brooklyn Teachers Association at the recent annual meeting held at Maxwell Training School. This teachers' organization has over 10,000 members and also constructive programs for the improvement of the teachers and the schools of Brooklyn.

Professor Paul S. Lomax of the School of Education of New York University, New York City, Dr. Herbert A. Tonne of the High School, New Rochelle, New York, Dr. Edward J. McNamara, principal of the High School of Commerce, New York City; Mr. Seth B. Carlin, principal of the Packard Commercial School, New York City; and Mr. Albert G. Belding, director of commercial education, New York City schools, were among those from this area who attended and appeared upon the program of the Thirty-first Annual Convention of the Eastern Commercial Teachers Association held at Philadelphia, March 28-30.

The fifth annual Junior-High-School Conference was held under the auspices of the School of Education, New York University, on Friday evening and Saturday morning, March 22 and 23. Delegates attended from eight States and discussed their problems in two general sessions and sixteen round tables.

At the general session on Friday evening, Dr. Margaret Alltucker discussed the problems of articulation of the junior high school and gave her conclusions of a survey of twenty-two communities. Dr. Joseph K. Van Denburg of the Board of Examiners of New York City, discussed his convictions regarding articulation.

At the Saturday morning general session, Dr. George Wheeler, associate superintendent of schools of Philadelphia, told how the junior high school is influenced by other administrative units, and Professor Philip W. L. Cox of New York University indicated "A Way Out" of the articulation difficulty.

It is the plan of the advisory committee to hold the Conference next year in the new School of Education building where adequate seating arrangements can be made for all who care to attend.

SIX YEARS AFTER

Six years ago the National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology was organized in Cleveland, to which city the Society returned

for its fifth annual meeting in February of the present year. During its lifetime the Society has had five presidents: Walter R. Smith of the University of Kansas, David Snedden of Columbia University, E. George Payne of New York University, Ross L. Finney of the University of Minnesota, and Daniel H. Kulp, II, of Columbia University. It was gratifying that all of these former officers could be present at and participate in the meetings held in February of this year. Mention should also be made of Charles C. Peters of Ohio Wesleyan University at the time of the organization of this Society but now of State College, Pennsylvania, one of the founders of the Society, who served it faithfully and effectively in the capacity of secretary-treasurer from its beginning until 1927.

The growth of the Society from that beginning is reflected in the membership records. At this last annual meeting in Cleveland 133 members were reported, distributed among 26 different States and the District of Columbia. This membership represents a gain of 114 per cent over and above the highest membership previously reported. The treasury showed a balance of \$86.15.

Another evidence of the growing strength of the Society is the appearance of the second yearbook, published by the Bureau of Publications of Teachers College, Columbia University, and prepared by three members of the Society: David Snedden of Teachers College, Columbia University, Philip W. L. Cox of the School of Education of New York University, and Charles C. Peters of State College, Pennsylvania. This yearbook, entitled *Objectives in Education*, constituted the basis of discussion at one of the meetings in Cleveland.

The first yearbook, entitled *Bibliographies on Educational Sociology*, published last year under the editorship of a committee headed by Frederick R. Clow of State Teachers College, Oshkosh, Wisconsin, was reported by the secretary as having reached a sale of 250 copies, with orders continuing to come in steadily. Orders for this yearbook from both Germany and Japan evidence a spread of the growth of interest in this field.

Another encouraging factor in the growth of this young Society is the connections which it has with other organizations. For some years it has constituted one of the recognized sections of the American Sociological Society, with which organization it meets in December. It has had a less definite relationship with the National Society of College Teachers of Education with which organization it held one of its Cleveland meetings. A committee has been appointed in response to an invitation from this latter organization to consider the necessary steps involved in becoming one of the regular sections of this significant Society.

So far as actions taken are concerned, perhaps the most far-reaching one was that which provided that in view of the considerations suggested by the management of THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY, this

Society cooperate with that publication by making THE JOURNAL the Society's official organ. It is hoped that this relationship will contribute to the further development of this very young science.

Officers for the year 1929-1930 were elected as follows: president, Daniel H. Kulp, II, Columbia University, vice president, Henry W. Holmes, Harvard University; secretary-treasurer, George B. Neumann, State Teachers College, Buffalo. The elected members of the executive committee are F. Stuart Chapin, University of Minnesota, Ellsworth Faris, University of Chicago, and Alvin Good, State Normal College, Natchitoches, La.

In addition to the meeting referred to above at which the second yearbook, *Objectives in Education*, was discussed, the society held three program meetings. The first consisted of reports on two important personality studies. One of these, entitled "Social Interaction of Young Children with Special Reference to the Domination and the Subordination of the Individual Child," was presented by Majorie J. Walker of Florida State College for Women. The second paper, "A Scale for Measuring Developmental Age," was presented by Paul H. Furfey, Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C.

The luncheon meeting provided two further reports of research. The first, "Suggestions for a Tentative Content for the Sociology Curriculum of a Teachers College," was presented by Alma Jensen, State Normal School, Dickinson, North Dakota. The second was presented by Jordan Cavan of Rockford College, Rockford, Illinois, and represented the research work upon the subject of "Education and the Business Girl," by Ruth Shonle Cavan and Jordan Cavan.

The afternoon meeting consisted of a round-table discussion in charge of Henry J. Jeddell of Ohio University, which dealt with the part which educational sociology has in the preparation for the profession of teaching. Reports of careful studies made in various States were presented and there were interesting discussions regarding the progress which is being made in the courses offered in this field.

THE ORTHOPSYCHIATRISTS MEET AND BEHAVE

A Report on the Recent Conference at the Hotel Pennsylvania

The American Orthopsychiatric Association has reached and celebrated its sixth birthday. The growth of the organism must be reported as lusty since, in the last half dozen years, it has multiplied its size one hundred times. There are investigators who tell us that all the essential personality trends are present in a single person by the time he has reached the age of six, but how that applies to a group of persons we cannot say, for no one rightly knows. We shall have to be content, then, with recording a sixth birthday and the interests exhibited by the organism at that time, quite in the manner of the mother who writes

in her son's baby book, confidently expectant that it will some day be an important document in his biography.

At the age of six, the interests of the Association may be said to center upon the consideration of constitutional factors in behavior disorders and the more inscrutable difficulty of the emotional factors involved in behavior maladjustment. If one were asked to choose the dominant interest it would probably be the first mentioned. We cannot attempt to give the details of all papers read, but the reader is surely entitled to glimpses, however kaleidoscopic, of some thoughts that run in orthopsychiatric minds. There is, for instance, a paper on "Some Early Factors Influencing Growth of the Child's Personality," dealing with the now familiar emphasis on the period of gestation as a time when unfavorable behavior trends are in the making. The speaker refers to the mother's anxiety in pregnancy as storing up woes for her child and to birth itself, by its very length or brevity, as accounting for later undesirable emotional interactions between parent and offspring. On the basis of experience with a few cases, the speaker reaches unwarranted conclusions about the linkage between the maladaptations of early childhood and the process of getting born. "The mother reacts to the child as a symbol of her maladjustment"—that is the keynote. Another speaker discusses constipation and behavior, pointing out that most maladjustment in this connection arises not from constipation itself, but from consciousness of social variation; the speaker deplores the establishment of a daily cathartic habit as a social necessity when, he says, it is clearly not a biologic demand. Another speaker is interested in "hypophrenias of syphilitic origin." Another treats of capillary forms in relation to certain problems in constitution, indicating that capillaries are characteristic for certain types of neuroses. Still another speaker sets forth a method of integrating the physical and psychiatric examinations by using the occasion when the child is stripped for his physical examination as an opportunity for discussing with him his attitudes towards the parts of his own body. Another and final speaker on constitutional factors reports an unsuccessful attempt to correlate metabolic rate with behavior problems. The findings in this field are not very positive. One remembers this part of the program as the attempt on the part of very earnest people to scale a high wall and none, it seems, are very far from the ground.

As for the emotional factors in behavior, we are apparently advancing with even less certainty. A speaker cites several examples of dynamic conditioning in school subjects—a bright boy failing in his arithmetic and spelling because his father, who is a druggist, cries out against the poor spelling and arithmetical inaccuracy of physicians, emphasizing this inefficiency so much that the son becomes rebellious about learning the subjects his father insists upon; a boy who cannot endure the hour for studying pronouns because, having been too much and too painfully interrogated in a recent delinquency episode, he resents the teacher's

examples of pronouns: "He is guilty," "You did it," and so on—all incredibly pat examples of our slavery to our feelings! Another speaker presents a sound array of data to indicate that I.Q. shows variations on later tests, bright children tending to be more variable than others, but in studying changes in I.Q., he finds the fluctuations of problem children not significantly greater than those of normal children. A third speaker considers the validity of the Marston questionnaire (a rating scale dealing with extroversion and introversion) only to find that, in kindergarten experience, the scale does not measure anything fixed and specific; the traits of extroversion and introversion are, at least at this young age, transitory and not typical of the personality. Another speaker, exploring the subject "Why People Fail and Are Dependent," refers to practically all known factors in maladjustment and returns to the conviction that "unfortunate personalities constitute the largest group of failures" and "improper management during childhood" is the cause of adult difficulties. A case analysis is presented by another speaker concerning "The Management of Marital Situations in Foster Homes," in which it appears that the paramount consideration in child placing revolves around the "libidinal needs" of the foster parents themselves. Those who comment on these papers echo and reecho the thought that emotional factors of maladjustment have their rise in parental difficulties and the conference subscribes to the necessity of placing more emphasis on the study of familial life. There is nothing very new in all of this. One must report that the orthopsychiatrists are busy hacking at the old, baffling problems but no one has felled a tree.

A few of the speakers develop topics that do not fit readily into the two categories outlined above. One, for instance, regrets that psychiatric treatment has remained so long on the specific suggestion level, conceiving its function to be the passing on to the mother of definite directions to follow in the readjustment of her child. A sociologist, armed with irrefutable data, establishes a concomitance between juvenile delinquency and the city area in which it occurs. Two speakers are engaged in classifying aberrant personalities that are neither delinquent nor insane, one setting forth a fourfold grouping and the other, a pigeon-holing into seven categories. Another presents a study of two hundred cases in an attempt to establish ordinal position in the family as a cause of behavior maladaptation, but his statistical tables show no very reliable differences to demark the first born from those later born in families, and even if this thesis were established, it is difficult to know what one could do about controlling ordinal position as such.

A conference is, after all, a mode of behaving. This particular conference shows certain fortunate trends in development, as witness its inclusion of a variety of viewpoints; its tendency towards the use of statistical data; its recognition, by frequent reference to the need for understanding the whole family of the problem child, of the force of group interplay in behavior adaptations; the accent given to environmental

conditioning by the paper on juvenile delinquency. Probably, the specialist in behavior study never sees behavior without wishing to improve it. One wishes, for instance, that several of the papers had not seemed insignificant as contributions to our understanding, but perhaps that can be charged somewhat to the selection of isolated factors in behavior when there is no understanding of it except as a total, integrated thing. One wishes there were not a glib readiness to make sweeping statements on meager fact. One sighs for more humility about our discoveries in the field of the emotions. One hopes for the use by the psychiatrist of scientific control and a growing unwillingness on his part to say anything that is based solely on his contacts with spectacular deviations from all that is normal. It must not be thought that conference behavior is confined to the speakers and their attentive listeners. Equal importance attaches to behavior in the crowded, smoke-filled lobby where "button-holing" is a high art. There, social contacts are promoted, plans discussed, ideas fought over, and all the handsome chimeras of the future enthusiastically dreamed.

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Dr. M. H. Bickman, director of research for the Committee on Social Analysis of College Committees, received his A.B. degree from the University of Pennsylvania and the A.M. and Ph.D. degrees in sociology from the University of Chicago. Dr. Bickman has had a notable career as boys' worker, Y.M.C.A. secretary, in social settlement movement, and as a director of community religious undertakings in and about Chicago. His work now as a "social analyst" is that of attempting the scientific study of college communities in order to be able to give proper guidance to high-school graduates.

Professor Philip W. L. Cox is professor of secondary education, School of Education, New York University. Professor Cox received his A.B. and A.M. degrees from Harvard, and his Ph.D. from Columbia. He has been tutor, submaster, principal, and superintendent in Massachusetts and superintendent at Solvay, N. Y. He was an instructor at Harris Teachers College, organized Ben Blewett Junior High School, St. Louis, and was principal of the High School of the Lincoln School of Teachers College before coming to New York University. He is the author of *Curriculum Adjustment in the Secondary School* and *Creative Social Control*.

Harvey D. Douglass, superintendent of schools, Fowlerville, Michigan, was born in Muir, Michigan, and received his elementary and secondary schooling there. He has been an elementary teacher, a small-town high-school instructor, and a small-town superintendent. He has had work with the Ferris Institute, Northern State Teachers College, Western State Teachers College, Central State Teachers College, and Michigan State Teachers College from which he received an A.B. degree in 1928. He is now doing graduate work with the department of sociology. He has contributed articles to the *Journal of Geography*, the *High School Teacher*, and the *American School Board Journal*. "Democracy in Student Government" will appear in an early issue.

Professor Joseph C. McElhannon is head of the department of education, Baylor College, Belton, Texas. He received his A.B. degree from Baylor University, and his A.M. and Ph.D. from the University of Chicago. His special fields of endeavor are in secondary education. The past summer quarter Professor McElhannon taught in the University of Virginia.

FORTHCOMING ARTICLES

Need for Public Education in Advertisement Response, by Paul Maxwell.

Reconstruction of Curricula (series of three articles), by David Snedden.

Some Reflections Upon the Field of Educational Sociology, by Richard Aspinall.

Commercial-Teacher-Training Curricula, by Herbert A. Tonne.

Relations Between the Public and Catholic Schools of Chicago, by Robert E. O'Brien.

Content and Method in Educational Sociology in Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges, by Stephen G. Clement.

A Sociological Case Study of a Foster Child, by Walter C. Reckless.

Some Recent German Publications Concerning Problems of Educational Sociology, by L. H. A. Geck.

The Social Assimilation of the American Indian, by Fred W. Blackman.

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EDITORIAL

With this issue THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY closes its second year of existence. The publication of THE JOURNAL was begun at the earnest request of a great number of sociologists and teachers in elementary and secondary schools who felt that no journal in the field of education adequately represented the sociological interpretation of education. The response of the teaching profession to THE JOURNAL has confirmed this judgment of those interested in it, and it seems now well on its way towards meeting the need for which it was established. The editors are under the deepest obligation to the contributors and readers for whatever success THE JOURNAL has had. Contributors have generously given material and a large clientele of readers have fully appreciated the contributions of the writers. With the continued support of both readers and contributors THE JOURNAL may hope to make a distinct contribution to our educational development.

* * *

In this issue we publish the first article from our European contributor, Dr. L. H. Ad Geck, dealing with the development of educational sociology in Germany. This

represents the beginning of what we hope will become a department presenting contributions from foreign countries. These contributions will give to American readers not only the status of sociology as applied to education in other countries, but will also serve to check our own emphasis by developments elsewhere. We welcome these contributions and congratulate Dr. Geck on the clear presentation which he has made. We are indebted to Dr. Meyer for the translation of the German article.

* * *

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY is fortunate in being able to add to the list of contributing editors, Dr. John J. Loftus, principal of Public School 80, Brooklyn. Dr. Loftus has received his degree from New York University, working in the department of educational sociology. He was an outstanding student and received a special award from Phi Delta Kappa for the best thesis presented for the year. He has contributed widely to educational magazines, including THE JOURNAL, is president of the Alumni Association of the School of Education of New York University, president of the Principals' Association in New York City, and is regarded as one of the educational leaders in the East.

A SOCIOLOGICAL CASE STUDY OF A FOSTER CHILD¹

WALTER C. RECKLESS

The task of placing foster children of late preschool age and of school age is made difficult by the fact that there is a much smaller demand for them than for the "tiny tots" under three years. Preference is given the younger children not only because they are generally more appealing, but also because people recognize that, to a large extent, the "tiny tots" are unformed, and can be incorporated the more easily in the family bosom.

Children of four years of age and above show detectable and sometimes ineradicable signs of their "bringing up" (or lack of it) as well as relatively persistent traits of personality. And it is just because families are unwilling to run the risk of tiring of a child or of getting a "bad one" from among the older foster children, that the system of trial placements has grown up. According to this system, the child is consigned to a family for trial prior to adoption, with the privilege to return the child. Many of these trial placements, it is true, lead to adoptions. But many lead to the end of the road—that is, the return of the child to the home-placement agency for "reasons." And the reasons are all too often that the child has shown certain traits which the family will not tolerate. It may be that the child possessed the objectionable traits before he was placed, that he developed them in the social situation of the family home, or both. Again, while the child may not be "all the parents could ask for," the particular home through no fault of the family may not be suitable for the child (i.e., all the child could ask for if he was in the position to ask).

¹Mr. Herbert H. Todd, Miss Emma Elizabeth Greene, Miss Cora Thomas, Miss Adelaide Douglas, Mr. Olin West, Miss Sarah E. Holmes, students in the department of sociology, Vanderbilt University, assisted in making observations on the child at play.

At any rate, foster children are, for the most part, *just* placed. In only a very few instances is anything known about their personalities and needs, so that social workers can tell whether such and such a child would fit into such and such a home, and can explain the child's needs and qualities to the prospective parents.

METHODS USED IN PRESENT STUDY

It is true but no less surprising that the "lion's share" of scientific study of "problem" children has been spent on juvenile delinquents. Consequently, it occurred to me that there ought to be some method or combination of methods which could be applied to the scientific study of foster children—a study which would give as much insight into the foster child's life for purposes of placement as clinical procedure gives into the personality of a delinquent for purposes of guidance. But obviously all the techniques employed in child-guidance clinics have not the same value for the study of foster children waiting placement in a receiving home as they have for juvenile offenders.

In the first place, much less reliance can be placed on the investigation of the social background of the foster child "in waiting" to give insight into his life and personality. What data are procurable on the child's social history are generally very slim. Mothers, fathers, relatives, and others who have known the child intimately are usually not around to supply the desired information.

In the second place, the technique of interview does not seem so well fitted for penetrating the life of a child four to eight years of age. The interview, it seems, yields better results with older, adolescent children—children who can talk about themselves when rapport is established.

PLAYROOM OBSERVATIONS AS THE CORE OF THE CASE

As a substitute for the limited insight gained through social investigations and interviews, observations on chil-

dren in the playroom situation, supplemented, of course, by physical and psychological examinations, can be used to carry the burden of procuring an adequate picture of the child's personality.

The case study presented below is therefore built around the objective (although qualitative) observations of the child in the free-play situation. It is one of a series of similar case studies which the author is making of foster children in waiting at the Tennessee Children's Home Society, Nashville, Tennessee. As presented in published form the case study given below consists of an introductory statement, a summary of the agency's record, the reports of the physical and psychological examinations, the playroom observations, an interview with the supervisor of the children in the agency's receiving home (she is constantly with them), an interview (such as it is) with the child, an interview with the child's public-school teacher, and a concluding sociological analysis of the whole case.

In the actual collection of the data, the play observations were made first, *without any knowledge of the child*, except his first name (not even his age was known). After these observations were completed, he was tested psychologically; given a complete medical examination; his agency record was looked up; the supervisor was interviewed, the school teacher interviewed; and lastly, the child interviewed

INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT OF CASE²

Bill, seven years of age, is an orphan from the mountains of Tennessee. His father, who was a miner, is dead. After the death of his mother, he and his two sisters were taken by neighbors to a county poorhouse. And it was from the poorhouse that the children were handed over to the Tennessee Children's Home Society. The younger sister was adopted over a year ago. The older sister was sent to a free home about three months ago. Both are

² Changes in names and places have been made throughout the case

"doing nicely" But Bill is still "in waiting" at the receiving home of the Society. And he has been in waiting for a year and a half.

Bill is a good specimen physically, except for certain minor conditions which need correction (chronic tonsillitis, adenoids, and conjunctivitis). He tests normal psychologically, although he has been "left" twice in 1 C Grade in the public school in spite of regular attendance. His principal handicap is an impediment in speech (just how extensive a handicap will have to be judged in the analysis at the end of the case). He is well adjusted in the receiving home. If he finally gets placed in a family home, he will need intelligent handling and guidance. However, it seems that most of his personality traits should make for a successful adjustment in a family which would be attuned to his needs.

THE COMPLETE CASE RECORD

*Background data. A Summary of the Tennessee Children's Home Society record.*³

White, male, American.

Date received by Tennessee Children's Home Society—8/12/27.

Date of birth—5/2/22

Place of birth—X County, Tennessee (exact place not known).

Parents: Father and mother dead. No data on them available. Mother died of pneumonia. Children left destitute and homeless. They were brought to the X County poorhouse by a neighbor who lived near them at Y, Y, Tenn. Father was a miner. Children taken by Tennessee Children's Home Society from poorhouse.

Other Children: Adelaide—sister, condition good when brought to Tennessee Children's Home Society, 4/23/19 (date of birth), free home (9/3/28), family reports that Adelaide was all they could ask for and they wanted to keep her (11/1/28)

³ The background data on cases of foster children are very limited. Especially is it difficult for field workers to find out what they desire to know. Either the data are not accessible (no one knows very much about the children)—which is usually the case—or the persons such as neighbors, relatives, county judges, will not tell all they know (for in rural districts people are hard to interview and are on the defensive, partly for the sake of protecting the children, partly because of attitudes towards outsiders). All this applies with unusual force to field work in the rural and mountain sections of Tennessee as well as other States, and quite naturally so. It might be of interest to note that a graduate student in the department of sociology at Vanderbilt University was set on the task of trying to get as complete background data as possible on one single case of a foster child in order to see really what could be done along this line. Six months of correspondence and visits, following the very few clues at the outset, were taken before he was able to exhaust the available sources of information. While such prolonged and patient effort can be made in the interest of research, it is well nigh impossible for social agencies to consume the time, energy, and money involved in this procedure.

Mary—sister, 11/15/25 (date of birth), adopted (8/13/27), placed next day after arrival in Tennessee Children's Home Society, favorable report

Developmental: early history not known, laryngitis (12/19/27), trench mouth (1/18/28), mumps (2/29/28), started school (4/19/28), weight 53½ lbs (4/19/28), 54¼ lbs, height, 48 in. (1/10/29) ¹
School—1-C Grade

Additional History. taken to free home for summer in country with Adelaide, sister (7/14/28), stayed until (9/15/28), returned to Tennessee Children's Home Society to begin school.

*Report of Medical Examination.*²

A Diagnosis: Tonsillitis, chronic, adenoids, conjunctivitis (follicular) 2/7/29.

B Physical: Weight—55 lbs. 10% overweight.

Height—47 inches.

Temperature—98 degrees

Tuberculosis test—negative

Skin—soft, dry, elastic, hot.

M M.—good color

Head—normal size and contour

Ears—much wax from left

Eyes—Normal positions and movement.

Nose—discharge present.

Mouth—tongue normal. Teeth dirty, throat markedly enlarged and inflamed.

Neck—no stiffness, no thyroid enlargement

Thorax—normal contour, moves equally.

Lungs—good, equal expansion. P. N resonant B. S vesicula; no rales heard

Heart—normal size and position Regular. No murmurs heard

Abdomen—smooth, no tenderness, no masses, no ascitic viscera felt.

Genitalia—normal male well developed.

Reflexes—deep, equally active.

C Impressions: Adenoids

Chronic tonsillitis

Granules on eyelids—conjunctivitis

Physiological Examination.

1. Binet Test: C. A. 6 years, 8 mo (as of Jan, 1929); M A. 6-1; I Q. 91, normal. Has impediment in speech. Otherwise seems normal. Cooperates well Responds normally.

2. Mare and Foal Test 50 sec. 2 errors, percentile rating—(time) 80, (errors) 75, works with good method

¹ Note a discrepancy with height measurement below

² Medical Examination made by pediatrics clinic of Vanderbilt Medical School, Nashville, Tenn

3. Manikin: 2 reversals; percentile scoring, 10.
4. Healy Puzzle A: 15 sec 16 right; percentile score—(time) 20, (moves) 20.
5. Declarez Matching Game: No score. Refused to try after 3 minutes. Keeps stopping moves when he doesn't succeed. Has to be told to try again.
6. Summary: low normal on Binet. The average percentile for the other three tests is 36, which puts him likewise in low normal class.⁶

Observations of the Child at Play.⁷

8.30-8.36, Mon., Nov. 5, 1928, inside playroom.

Sits on top of sand pile (lid cover on top), cuts picture from magazine, talks to Fowler, listens to Jerry, starts cutting in magazine again, pauses to look at what Chick has (a picture), resumes cutting, turns pages of magazine, says something about Old King Cole (a picture in an advertisement), cuts irregularly around outline of movie actress, Jerry gets up next to him, no talk, Jerry whistles to self, Bill completes picture, begins turning pages of magazine, puts strip of paper in mouth, listens to Jerry, calls Miss Ella, shows her the picture he has cut out, Jerry says "I can't find (something)." Bill says "What?" Bill asks Gregory to carry picture to Miss Ella.

Note: 5 boys on top of covered sand pile. When sand pile is not in use, the lid makes it into an activity table. Bill and Jerry play together a good deal. Jerry dominant. Bill follows him.

9.10-9.15, Mon., Nov. 5, 1928.

Has picture from magazine in hand, drops it, picks up another piece of cut magazine paper, turns over pages in magazine, Chick takes magazine away from him, Bill does not protest, looks at him, then looks away (as if nothing happened), then at observer, then looks at Chick again, picks up well-cut auto in outline (green closed car), goes to sand pile (table), puts picture in waste-paper box, returns to old place on floor, Cecil has joined Chick, Bill does not sit down, goes away to other side of room, sits by self on wall bench, looking at group playing blocks on

⁶ The psychological examination was made by C. W. Telford, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee.

⁷ Teams of two were assigned to observe individual children during play. The period of observation on each child at any one time was 5 minutes. Both members of a team, therefore, took notes on the same child simultaneously. The instructions were to take down as much as possible (i. e., all that was seen and heard) and to make recordings in the simplest concrete language. Observers were cautioned to be strictly objective and to read nothing into the behavior of a child, such as "child tires of blocks and looks for something more exciting." Observers were also requested to put down situational notes after each five-minute observation or to write down any comment which seemed to hold true of the child during the particular period of observation. A superficial check on a sample number of observations brought in so far (after 3 months' experience) reveals a fairly low correlation (ranging from 30 to 50) between the separate items recorded during various five-minute observations taken simultaneously by two observers. But it was soon found that any two simultaneously recorded observations seem to give, in spite of the differences in the separately recorded items, about the same qualitative picture of what the child did. I shall leave the demonstration of this fact for a later paper. Every team would observe a child assigned to it, until the members agreed that he was not showing anything new—until they got recurrent pictures (consistency, in other words). I believe that qualitative recordings of this sort, in spite of what can be said about qualitative methods in general, have a workable validity and yield revealing and characteristic pictures of children observed as well as data accurate and sufficient enough to pick out personality traits with some degree of assurance.

floor in front of him, turns around, fingers blocks on bench beside him, looks at observer, then at Cedric and Charlotte, holds hand in pocket, talks to observer, looks at her writing, then at her eyes

Note: Bill seems to be inactive, not forceful, not aggressive, not positive, no resistance when things taken away from him, moves slowly, keeps lips parted when vacantly staring, talks very indistinctly, he lisps and can't pronounce words clearly. Right after observation Bill had paper fight with Leland. A smile comes over his face at times, especially when he is playing with others. Talks a lot when with others. When alone he seems sad and inactive (unstimulated).

2 48-2 53, Wed, Nov. 7, 1928.

Bill hurriedly takes off sweater over head, says "Bah" to Rolland, Bill leaves him, picks up mechanical airplane, winds it, pushes it on floor, goes to window bench where Sydney is playing, watches him play with train on round track (Chick, Edward, Fowler, and Sydney in group), Bill leaves with Edward, goes back again to Sydney, watches him play with train toy, looks away, sits down on window bench where Sydney's toy is, keeps airplane in hand, leaves position, goes to Cedric and Roy, still keeps airplane, sits on floor, turns back on boys, watches Cedric leave his box of toys, looks at Jerry playing with shutes, pushes airplane over floor, chases it, watches Charles shoot gun, picks up train toy Sydney left, holds it, winds it, lets it run out, holds toy on knee.

Note: Bill just came in from school. All children had mechanical toys of some sort. The room in a buzz. Bill got very active. Seemed to want to start in and make up for lost time. Pulled sweater off like a person getting down to a job suddenly. Went from group to group. Paused very little.

8 44-8-49, Fri., Nov. 9, 1928.

Goes to Miss Ella, asks to be allowed to play outside, she puts arms around him, he has arms around her, she tells him it's too cold and damp outdoors, he leaves, has toy pistol, stands by Sydney, says nothing, puts pistol in mouth, holds it down to one side, leaves room for a second, comes back, shouts to Christopher, C. says "Bill, Bill," they both take drink from fountain, C. shows Bill his gun, gets Bill to fix it for him, Bill helps him, Bill watches C. trying to fix gun, Bill says a word to him (indistinct), C. leaves him, Bill goes to side of room, picks up unclaimed toy (man in auto), Miss Ella Sydney, Roy, and Edward come near to him, no talk, Christopher comes up, others leave, C. brings gun for Bill to fix, Bill resumes fixing his auto toy, pounds it with pistol he has kept throughout, says nothing to C.

8 42-8.47, Mon., Nov. 12, 1928.

Bill in group of boys watches Jerry turn over scrapbook leaves with pictures on them, puts metal piece in mouth, looks at picture book of Jerry, plays with metal piece in mouth, says a word to J. (indistinct), Christopher sits by Bill on floor, C. says "You all" out loud, Jerry leaves, group breaks up, Bill goes to Jerry again, stands in back of him,

boys formerly together on floor gather round J. again, B. looks at Jerry, who is glancing at funny paper, stands behind J., has hands in pockets, throws metal piece away over on top of sand pile, talks to new boy (Chumley), shows his stamp marks on arms, turns head around, says to Chumley, "You know my name, don't you?" (got no response), looks at Jerry, Christopher comes up to show Jerry his book, Bill looks at C. and J.

Note: Bill is a looker on in this observation. Says very little. Watches Jerry mostly.

8 07-8 12, Wed, Nov 14, 1928.

Goes to sandpile table (covered with lid), Jerry comes to his side, B. looks around, looks through schoolbook (a reader), turns head around, looks at book again, looks at Jerry playing with blocks next to him, J talks to B., B. does not respond, Jerry calls "Bill," B. turns to him, Charlotte and X. (boy) come to sandpile table and a second later Christopher comes, Bill allows X. to look at reader, says nothing, looks at Miss Ella across table, looks at Jerry, looks away at children in another part of room, looks at teacher leaving table.

8 19-8 25, Fri., Nov 16, 1928. Outside playground.⁸

Bill playing with Christopher on rope swing, using board over seat as a seesaw, leave this swing, they go to another swing, use board on seat to stand on as a seesaw with seat as balance point, they go to another swing, use board as seesaw to sit on, talk and yell, Chick comes up, he swings them as they seesaw, Christopher and Bill laugh and holler, they stop swinging and seesawing as board slips, Chick fixes seesaw board for them, all three talk, Bill and Christopher get up, readjust seesaw board on seat of swing, Sydney comes up, stands a few paces away looking on, Chick pushes them again and seesaws them at same time, B. and Christopher laugh, Chick pushes them again, he repeats, Christopher gets on seat of swing as board slips through Bill, they stop, begin over again on next adjoining swing, Chick pushes them, Christopher asks Chick to push them again, Chick pushes and seesaws them, Sydney moves up and sits in next swing looking on, B. and Christopher yell and talk merrily

Note: Christopher and Bill started seesawing with the small board on edge of the sandpile (a sort of wooden wall 8 inches high around pile). This was just prior to observation. One of them, I think Christopher, got the idea that it would work on the rope swings. At least, he carried the board over and made off for the swings and Bill followed. They went over and tried it. It was quite a success for them. Seemed to be lots of sport. Attracted attention from others. Chick comes up and participates. Sydney next comes and stands off without saying anything. Later Cecil and Myles come up. It may be that the seesaw board hit the ground on the edge of the sand pile and wouldn't work. Only 8 inches for the dip. This may have been the origin of the application to the rope swing. However, the swing and the seesawing

⁸ When observation is made of child on outside playground, this fact will be indicated as above. Unless otherwise indicated, an observation pertains to the inside playground.

combined two sports and intensified both. The board was always slipping out of balance as they swung and seesawed. They seemed to hold on for dear life and would yell most lustily just before the board fell to ground when they got out of balance.

8.41-8.46, Tues., Dec 11, 1928

At sand table, next to Jerry, has gun in hands, picks it out of sand, looks at Christopher across table, Bill fixes gun, looks at Miss Ella, to side of room, sticks nozzle of gun under chin, lifts head up, Wallace comes to his side, W. explains something to him, B. looks at Lester on other side of sand pile, loads gun and shoots it, looks at janitor, reloads and shoots, looks outdoors at ladies, talks to Jerry, J. looks while Bill holds gun straight out in one hand and shoots, B. looks at Lester putting sand in a box, points gun at Lester, shoots gun on top of box full of sand, pats sand of this box with butt of gun, reloads gun, talks to Miss Ella, turns away, goes to side of Lester, talks to Jerry, leaves sandpile, goes near door, Rolland comes to him, they talk, B. returns to sandpile.

2.06-2.11, Fri., Jan 4, 1929.

Standing looking at Miss G. (obs. on other team), walks to the radiator, leans against it, hands in pocket, looks at bunch of children in doorway, looks at Miss G., at Mr W. (obs. partner), back at Miss G., then at me, takes two or three steps, leans up against pipes, watches Mr W., makes a restless movement, stares at Mr W. intensely, looks away, then back at Miss G. and Mr T. (team of observers), glances at Dr. R., back at me, looks at Lydia put box on floor, watches John on tricycle, leans against wall with hands behind him, watches Miss Ella, looks at supervisor showing book to a boy, glances at Lillian, looks at Martha, spreads wet handkerchief on radiator, moves over between radiator and window, takes handkerchief from pocket but puts it back.

Note: Not physically active. Seemed to be taking in everything in room, but he gives the impression that nothing he sees has made much impression on him.

2.32-2.37, Fri., Jan. 4, 1929

Stands leaning against radiator and stares intensely at Miss G., then watches us write, looks at Miss G., then at Dr R., and back at us, looks at Wallace and Roy in fire engine, watches group on bench opposite, looks at me write, looks back at group across the way, then at Wallace, then at Mr T., then at John, who is still on the tricycle, looks at Rolland and Leland play with toy truck, looks at supervisor, at fire engine, at me, at fire engine, at Miss Ella in doorway, at Wallace in fire engine, stares at floor, rubs eyes with left arm, walks off to other end of floor and says something to Miss Ella.

Note: Did not move from radiator throughout the observation until the very last. Mouth always hanging open. He complained to Miss Ella that his eyes are hurting him. She says he is probably taking cold. Flu is on

8 34-8.40, Mon., Jan. 7, 1929.

Says "get out of my way" to child, runs into door with scooter, turns and scoots to other end of floor whooping, says "I want to go outside," comes back to this end, goes through door at other end, says "Bah," and scoots length of floor, bumps into bench we are sitting on, hollers "hey" as a sort of horn, bumps into doorway and stops, says "Let's go outside," "Miss Ella, can I go outside?" goes to outside door and out on porch without a coat on, stays out a short while, comes back in, begs Miss Ella to let him go outside, scoots around the room, says "Get out of my way, Rolland."

Note: Bill, Cecil, and Wallace are on scooters.

2.08-2.13, Wed., Jan. 9, 1929.

Standing by radiator, has top in hand, Wallace comes up and they play as though they were hitting each other in faces with tops, Wallace leaves and Bill stands staring idly around, top in hand, walks to other radiator and hits top against radiator. Walks across room and sits by supervisor, turns top idly in hands, watches Roy in auto, tries to spin top with his hand on bench, Hilary takes top from him and tries to spin it on floor, Bill watches Hilary, H. throws top back to Bill, Bill tries to spin it on bench, top rolls off on floor, he gets up and picks it up and goes straight back to bench, spins it once, watches Frank tack picture on board on wall, stares straight in front of him, hands clasped over top, says something to supervisor.

Note: Hilary an older boy, about 14 and large. Bill is quiet. Not greatly interested in others.

8 24-8.29, Fri, Jan. 11, 1929.

In fire engine auto, Hilary tells him to come there, but Bill shakes his head, looks at Rolland playing on the floor, backs off and backs into bench, John kicks him off, and Bill continues backing down the room, stops and looks at Dr. R., leans out and examines running board, one foot hanging out, Raymond comes up in a toy auto and runs into Bill's foot, runs back up length of floor, John starts pushing him and he says "John," hangs both feet out, John pushes him into Charlotte, she says "Stop," goes forward then, John pushes him the length of floor and pulls him back, Rolland puts his head on the windshield, Bill, John, Rolland stand still talking, Bill moves over so Rolland can sit on the seat beside him, both smile, Bill gets out

Note: Usual good humor.

1.37-1.42, Tues, Jan 15, 1929.

Tries to get wheel on toy wagon, beats it on with sticks, tries to turn axle, Gregory turns wagon on side, Bill helps him hold it up while he adjusts back wheels, Bill turns wagon over and tries to get front fixed while Gregory adjusts the back, B looks over at Martha, B. says something to Raymond, says something about the book Rolland is reading, taps on inside of wagon with stick, says something to Gregory, acts as though he were going to hit the floor hard with stick but barely touches

it, says something, puts piece of wood up to mouth, says something else, picks up front end of wagon and tries to get front wheel on, looks at supervisor who is talking to John, looks up at Mr. T. for several seconds.

8.15-8 20, Mon., Jan 21, 1929.

Brushing Raymond off, follows him as he carries wagon full of blocks, Edward with them, all three play in middle of floor, Roy joins them, Bill looks at Jerry and Miss Ella, leans on right hand, aimlessly plays with wagon axle, puts one end in mouth, pulls pin out with teeth, looks at Edward, Roy leaves the group, B. looks up at Miss G. (obs.), looks back at wagon of blocks, plays with them with left hand, looks over at me, then across the room to Miss G., then back to blocks

Note: Seems quiet and bit tired. His eyes are sleepy-looking.

1 49-1.54, Wed, Jan. 23, 1929.

Sitting on end of bench, hands in pockets, stares at floor, gets up and goes from room, comes back in, goes to another door, pulls it open, goes out, gets broom, comes back in, goes out other door, sweeps up floor of dining room, stands holding broom against him, starts sweeping again, pushes chair up to table and sweeps under it, picks up pin, sweeps under table, sweeps in front of sideboard, goes on opposite side of table, sweeps and adjusts chairs.

Note: Children are assigned little duties which they are supposed to do regularly. At best they last for a few moments. Bill sweeps energetically but rather without plan. Seems to sweep dirt into corners, under table, under sideboard—anywhere except out the door

8.42-8 47, Fri, Jan. 25, 1929.

Stands back to side of Miss Ella, holding her hand and examining her wrist watch, Gregory holds the same hand and Fanny puts arms around her, B. pats her on the arm and says something to her, Gregory puts strip of cloth over his eyes, then Bill's, then Miss Ella's, Bill still interested in the watch, looks over at me, then says something to Miss Ella, pats her arm, she leaves, B. kicks Rolland's wagon, he says "Quit, Bill," B. kicks two or three loose blocks and then says something to Gregory, Miss Ella comes back, B stands with finger in each ear, sits down on one side of Miss Ella, Gregory on other, looks at book front Cedric has, John comes up and says something to him, B. does not answer but seems to be looking forward into space

Note: Characteristically inactive. Other observer notes on same observation that B. is rather lazy as usual, makes several movements half actively but loses interest and returns to lazy mood Just after observation, CT notes that B. goes over and kicks at Raymond's blocks, which are in a tall pyramid, disturbs them a little, B. sits down on floor by him, says something and then knocks them over. It must have been agreed on because Raymond didn't get mad. Other observer notes that both boys laugh as they knock blocks down

8 16-8 21, Mon., Jan. 28, 1929.

Stands near bench, sits down on bench playing with blocks. X. (a new child) stands near him for a few seconds and leaves. B. throws block up in air two or three times, Edward goes up and says something to him, John says something in passing, takes blocks from Raymond, piles up blocks and lets one slide down, turns and talks to Milton, who comes up and starts playing with Bill's discarded blocks, M and B, start building, B. gets up, picks up two blocks and slaps them together, goes back and resumes playing, on his knees before bench.

Note. Cecil, Milton, Raymond, and Bill are playing with building blocks. Bill, Raymond, and Milton on knees in front of bench. Bill in middle. B more active than usual.

8 22-8.27, Mon, Feb 4, 1929.

Sits on floor, talks to Jerry, touches blocks with right hand, takes one up, puts it on two that Jerry had set upright, looks at observer (Dr. R), speaks to him, talks to Jerry, picks up block, puts it on Jerry's construction, Jerry takes block from him as he attempted to put it in place, B. adjusts a block on top, J scowls mildly, B. looks at Gregory (on floor to one side, not in this group), talks to G., no response, talks to J , puts block in wagon, looks into dining room at Geraldine, picks up a block, holds it, looks at group nearby (Gregory, Edward, Leland, and Roland), watches J. build, talks to Edward as he comes up, looks at J. again, picks up a block, puts it on J.'s construction, looks over blocks in block pile, looks at Cedric in fire engine.

Note: Seems to defer to Jerry. Follows Jerry's building idea. Only puts blocks on when Jerry does not prevent.

1.49-1.54, Tues., Feb. 5, 1929

Playing with Lincoln blocks with Milton, watches Roy play with bird, watches M. put roof on cabin, puts a block on (a sort of ornament), M. takes it off and puts it inside, B. says something to M., picks up a log and holds it to his eye, tries to make a log stand against cabin, copies what M is doing, hits toe of shoe with a log, says "Here are two more big ones," looks over at Miss Ella, knocks top off, M says "Now Bill," B. sits up on feet, then back down again, leaning on left hand, rather aimlessly stands a log against the house, pushes logs leaning against roof off, moves box (containing logs), crawls around and helps M build a smaller house in the back.

Note. Seems to lack initiative and seems not to show much enthusiasm or interest.

Interview with Miss Ella, Children's Supervisor, Tennessee Children's Home Society, Nashville.

Bill gets mad only very seldom, just when he feels terribly imposed on. He doesn't display any real meanness. He is very even-tempered. Doesn't seem to be as lively as some of the other boys. It seems he hasn't the pep. He plays better with children that are lively than with those

that are not Bill sulks sometimes, not often, when he feels like it and not due to correction by me or something another child has *done to* him I don't believe that Bill is a very enthusiastic boy. He seems to enjoy blocks as much as any form of play He is not combative and fights very seldom He plays well with most all the children, although he doesn't play with them all His best friend is Jerry, and he plays more with him than any one else Bill doesn't play with girls hardly at all Jerry is the leader and leads Bill Bill doesn't object to this. I never have any trouble with him, never have to correct him

Bill is not finicky about his food. He has a good appetite and seems to eat with relish. He goes to sleep easily at bedtime. But he wakes up a little sooner than the others and rouses them by talking to them. He sleeps in a room with Roy, Frank, and Leland He just talks, doesn't get out of bed or get into fights.

Bill is not now sensitive He used to be somewhat when he first came to us. He doesn't feel easily abused or slighted He is no longer sensitive about his *lisp*ing. The children don't laugh at him or seem to notice it. The children can understand him all right and so can I, that is, hear what he has to say.

Bill has been with us a long time, ever since August 11, 1927 He was at first very sensitive and timid, especially about his *lisp*ing and then the usual strangeness It seemed that the children noticed his *lisp*ing then but don't any more. He is not even timid about strangers who come in any more.

Bill has no sleep disturbances He does not wet the bed Never has since he has been here He is regular in his elimination. Doesn't get sick often or upset much He is careless about his clothes and is hard to keep clean, not overly so, but more so than most of the children here. He lets his shoes go untied and his stockings hang down. And he gets himself dirty more than the average. But he is not hard to get to wash and clean up

He is not a complainer And not a tattletale. Sometimes he is given little odd jobs to do by me, such as sweeping off the sidewalk He does his jobs well and sometimes even seems to want to do them A few times though he does them poorly and this is due to how he feels

Bill talks once in a great while about wanting to go see his sister They were rather fond of each other. He probably really wants to see her, rather than get a mere vacation He speaks once in a great while about wanting to go to a new home with his sister. This happens only when he hears other children mention the homes they have been to or hears that one is going to be sent to a new home But going to a home or getting a new home is not on his mind

I think Bill would be happier in the country in a country home than anywhere else He seems to like the country Bill is a child who must have some one to push him out, to help him grasp things, and to take an interest in him He needs to become more self-reliant and independent and not follow the lead of others so much He is rather

affectionate and tender-hearted, is easily touched and not at all resentful or obstinate. Bill had the impediment of speech when he came to us. It hasn't got any better. I thought that it would have by now. Perhaps it takes time. Adelaide had a slight impediment but she could pronounce words much better. Hers was not just like Bill's. I can't quite describe it. It wasn't lisping. But she couldn't talk altogether clearly.

Observations at Interview with Bill. Not difficult to establish rapport. Came into room with smile. Showed no signs of being afraid or timid. Sat down in rocking chair and faced the interviewer. Looked straight at him during time when interviewer talked to him. Didn't rock or twitch in seat. Looked away sometimes when he tried to pronounce a word. Bill showed much difficulty in talking. Interviewer could hardly understand him. When asked to repeat what he said, he took some time fumbling with the word in his mouth before he could get it out. Sometimes when asked a question as for example what he liked to eat best, he seemed to fumble for a word that he could pronounce rather than answer the question spontaneously. He pronounces very indistinctly. Can't pronounce c's or s's, because was pronounced "tau." He talked to interviewer in words and very short phrases at most. He seemed willing to say *yes* to almost any question. Interviewer had to use leading question method for most part, and he would answer *yes* or *no*. He was more spontaneous on what persons he liked best, for he came right out with the names and he stuck to the people he liked and in the order he liked them. The interviewer couldn't get him to change the order. Interview not satisfactory.

Interview with Bill. He said he liked school "awe why" (all right) He said he didn't like to read or write (that is all they do besides draw in his section of the first grade). Said "it too hard." He liked the teacher all right (said *yes* by shaking his head sort of neutrally). Said he liked the kids at school "awe why," that none of them played tricks on him, punched him, or were mean to him. Said "Yes" to question as to whether he missed Adelaide (his sister). Said he'd like to be in the country with his sister. Interviewer asked him if he wanted to come away from place where he was brought from and he said, "No." Bill said he liked the home he was at this past summer in the country better than his old home. He said he liked the country better than town. Interviewer asked him what he liked best about the country. He came out spontaneously with a two-word phrase I couldn't get it. Asked him to repeat it. Couldn't get it. Asked again and bent down to him, putting hand on his shoulder and patting him. Bill tried to say it, but I said that's all right, letting the matter go for fear of making him self-conscious. I asked him if he ever dreamt any. Said he had a dream about what I thought was a nanny goat. I said "Nanny goat?" Bill shook his head. Asked him what a nanny goat was. No answer. Asked him how high it was. He held out his right

hand about two feet off floor. I asked him what he thought about while at school (because teacher said he paid no attention and seemed to be dreaming) Couldn't get answer. Put three or so leading questions. He shook his head and said yes to all of them. One was about getting back home to play. When asked whom he liked best in the home he came right out and said Miss Ella (the main supervisor). Asked him who was his best boy friend. He said Jerry. Asked him whom he liked next best. He said Roy right away. Asked him if he liked Jerry better than Miss Ella. He shook his head no. Asked him if he liked Roy better than Jerry. Shook his head and said no. Asked who he liked next best after Roy. He paused, looked away, tried to think or find the name. I let the matter go. Asked if he liked Adelaide better than Miss Ella. Shook his head no. Asked if he liked Jerry better than Adelaide. Shook his head yes. Asked if he liked Roy better than Adelaide. Shook his head no. Asked if he liked the boys better than the girls in the home. Shook his head yes. Asked if he disliked the girls and never played with them. Shook his head no. Asked him if he ever bit his nails. Shook his head no. I said, "Let's see." He held out his right hand. No signs of biting. Confirmed this for both hands. Asked him what he liked to play with best. He said "fire engine" (a motor cart propelled by pedals with ladder on it). Asked what he liked to play with next best. Couldn't get it. Thought he meant some sort of vehicle to ride in. Couldn't get what he liked next best. Asked him whether he liked to play inside better than outside. Shook his head and said no. I asked "Outside?" Bill said yes. I tried to find out what he liked to do best outside. He answered yes to two or three leading questions. Asked him what he liked best to eat. Said something. Couldn't get it. I said "What?" He tried again. Couldn't get it. Asked him what else he liked. Said "peaches" right away. I thought his first answer before peaches was "hot tea." I said "Hot tea?" He was neutral. Asked again, "Is it hot tea, Bill?" He sort of shook his head yes. Asked him if any of the boys in the home treated him mean. He said no.

Interview with Miss Henry, Bill's Teacher at X. X. (Public) School
Bill hasn't come to school this term. He doesn't do very well. Yes, he attended regularly. (Showed the investigator her records, perfect attendance for the fall term.) He has been left twice, once in the spring, and once at end of fall term. When he comes back, this will be his third time in 1c grade. He doesn't seem to be able to learn. He can't read very well, does very poorly at it. He can't talk well, you know. He can't put a word in a sentence. He writes better than he reads but he does that poorly. Arithmetic? No, you know we don't give the children any of that in the first grade. It seems that he doesn't pay attention in class. He seems to be dreaming all the time. He's not mischievous. I have no trouble with him that way. The other children get along with him all right. He doesn't bother with them any. No, they don't tease him about anything, or laugh when he tries to talk.

Yes, he comes to school in overalls. All the boys from the Home come dressed like that. The children here are used to it. It doesn't make any difference as far as I can see. I don't know what to suggest for him. He seems to be the kind that can work with his hands best rather than with his brain. Oh, he does show up normal on intelligence tests? I'm surprised to hear that. Well, he just don't seem to take to the work here. I've tried and tried and will keep on when he comes back. What is the matter with the children from the Home this term? None of them seem to be with us (Investigator explained to her that they had been kept out for flu and so much cold). You know, I have noticed that sometimes his eyes are red. I wonder what it can be. I don't know what to suggest. I know he doesn't get help at home like the rest of our children. Maybe some one to help him outside of school would do some good.

Observations of the School and Teacher A fairly new school. Miss Henry has a room that can hold about 60 pupils. There seemed to be about thirty in the class. The interview was held in the classroom. She showed a patient and sympathetic way of dealing with the children and of correcting. She said to one boy, (not Bill, our subject; for he was not at school that day) "Now, Billie, I'll have to wait for you to get your book out and be doing something. Go on. I'm waiting." The child dug under his bench and got a book and she resumed the interview. Miss Henry is a woman of about 40. She seemed interested in the children and in Bill. The principal, a man of about 45, introduced me to Miss Henry. He said that I was interested in helping Bill and then left us. The children, all white, looked very clean and neat. Middle-class population.

SOCIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS

Bill has many qualities which will make for a fairly successful adjustment in a foster home. He is a willing child. He can be made to do things if dealt with affectionately. He is not a rebellious type. Nor is he a complainer. He falls in line well and readily subordinates himself to others—perhaps a little too much. Bill is not likely to cause a "rumpus" in a family or in the schoolroom. He is not likely to be mischievous and stand in need of correction (except possibly for taking poor care of his personal effects). He takes correction well and can be reached by kind, sympathetic words.

It is true that Bill is not a "self-starter." He must usually be stimulated into activity. However, he is a good joiner in and a good audience for a more dominant child. His lack of push or drive may be due to his physical ailments (tonsils and adenoids particularly). These conditions may devitalize him so that he shows up with lack of initiative in his social relations and with poor work in his classroom. They may be responsible more particularly for his sleepy attitude in the class and his inability to pass his work or learn to read and use words. At the same time this "lack of push," if not altered by correction of the

nose and throat trouble—if a permanent dispositional trait—may make for either success or handicap. In a foster family where parents object to children who are too “nosey,” aggressive, or “always wanting to be on the go,” but like a slow-and-easy-going child, Bill would ingratiate himself very well. But one caution should be made for the child’s benefit and future development. The family which gets him should not let him vegetate, but should push him out—stimulate him, enlist his interests, place him on his own as much as possible.

Bill is “even-tempered.” He is not given to temper displays. He does not get easily hurt or find himself abused. He does not cry and “rattletale.” The children like him, for Bill can always be depended on to do what they want him to do—in other words, to fit in the picture in the way they want.

He also seems to be a child that can be contented with precious little in the way of material comforts. And he seems not to crave an over amount of affection or sympathetic response. He is not a mollicoddle or a “mamma’s boy.” He does not extend himself to make many friends. He appears to have developed one or two very special friends among the boys of his age in the receiving home.

Bill prefers the outdoors to the indoors. He is always asking the supervisor to be allowed to play outside. The first thing after breakfast (almost every morning) Bill asks to go outside and sweep the pavement and steps. He is usually allowed to go with another boy of his size. It is my impression, although we have only a few outside observations on him, that he is slightly more active on the outside playground than in the inside playroom.

His love of the outside may be correlated with his preference for the country as against the city. This love of outdoors and the country should be taken into account in placing him. And further, his attachment for his sister, Adelaide, should also be considered. Bill misses his sister (she is away in a free home). He would like to get in a home with her. He could, of course, get used to the separation. However, if the two could be placed together, there might be an added factor to a successful adjustment, namely, the mutual reenforcement of the two children. As it is, Adelaide is placed and Bill is still in waiting and it may be that they must remain “these twain.”

Bill’s physical qualities are no risk (except for minor throat and nose conditions). While Bill will probably never be brilliant, his “normal” intelligence is certainly no risk. His disposition and attitudes are no risk but in the proper situation are assets.

If Bill has any trait that might be a risk, it would be his speech impediment. This is probably not due to anything but faulty speech learning. There is no way of telling exactly the extent of the neglect and lack of training he suffered in early childhood. The impediment seems to be purely the result of bad language habits. Faulty and indistinct pronunciation, we may say, was allowed to go on uncorrected. The

fact that his sister has the same handicap (although not as bad) seems to me to indicate poor development in both cases rather than the biological inheritance of a speech defect. Nevertheless, this impediment may be the source of much embarrassment to him in a new family-and-community situation. He may become extremely sensitive, especially in reference to new schoolmates and strange children, on account of his difficulty in talking. And due to an acquired sensitiveness, he may become all the more backward and unassertive. His future parents, guardians, or teachers, should try to make him speak freely and clearly (I feel that he can be made to speak better with patient handling) and should be on the watch for any signs of retirement or retreat from situations in which he has been embarrassed or afraid to act because of his inability to talk well.

SOME RECENT GERMAN PUBLICATIONS CONCERNING PROBLEMS OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY¹

L. H. AD. GECK

Educational sociology or pedagogical sociology—or whatever the expression may be—does not yet exist in Germany. Though the term sociology has been used for some years, yet no organized system of educational sociology has resulted. The very important contributions of American educational sociologists, such as those of E. George Payne, Charles C. Peters, W. R. Smith, and David Snedden, are practically unknown in Germany. This is surprising, if one remembers that as early as 1880 two eminent German professors of education were working along educational sociological lines. In 1882 appeared the first volume of Otto Willmann's well-known book *Die Didaktik als Bildungslehre; nach ihren Beziehungen zur Socialforschung und zur Geschichte der Bildung*, emphasizing the need of considering education from its historical aspects and in its social functions. Gustav Adolph Lindner—an educational sociologist hardly known today, even in Germany—attempted at the same time to evaluate the results of the theory of evolution and sociology for the science of education, and to put a new science on a new basis. Unfortunately, Lindner's death deprived us of his results in final form. Still from his incomplete writings there appeared in 1889 a little book entitled *Grundriss der Padagogik als Wissenschaft*, which may be considered as the first German exposition of educational sociology.

Between the years 1890 and 1910, a series of studies on educational sociology appeared in Germany, among which those of Paul Natorp are particularly worthy of mention. But as before, there is still lacking a thorough, systematic

¹ Translated by Adolph E. Meyer.

exposition of educational sociology. In the main this is due to the fact that sociology began to be recognized in Germany only after the war. Before that time there was at least an impetus towards the organization of sociology. Since the writer of these lines has been endeavoring for years to reconstruct educational sociology and believes that he has presented rather clearly its basic problem, perhaps he may be permitted to indicate his thoughts very briefly concerning the *Systemproblem*, such as he has been doing in various German periodicals.

The task of the educational sociologist is twofold: (1) to train and educate *in* human society, i.e., under definite social conditions brought about by human social life; (2) to train and educate *for* human society; i.e., to form the educational processes in such a way that in addition to purely personal development there is also fostered an ability and a will to adjust oneself to the realities of social living in the best sense of the word.

From this evolves the fundamental basis of the system. Educational sociology as a science, concerning itself with the sociological aspects of education, may be divided into two parts. One of these divisions is pedagogical sociology. Its task is to investigate the phenomena of social living—the processes and relationships—so far as they can be, or are significant for, the educational processes in the broadest sense of the term. The second division of scientific educational sociology is sociological pedagogy. Its task is to construct a socialized system of education from the results of social philosophy and those of other sciences.

A great deal of preliminary work will be necessary to bring about a systematized educational sociology, having adequate content and meaning. Especially will individual investigations and studies be required.

A whole series of such individual studies is available in Germany. Out of a number of such experimental studies, permit me to mention two: one by August Mayer, *Ueber*

Einzel- und Gesamtleistung des Schulkindes. Ein Beitrag zur experimentellen Pädagogik (Leipzig, 1904); and another by Walter Moede, *Experimentelle Massenpsychologie Beiträge zur Experimentalpsychologie der Gruppe* (Leipzig, 1920). Mayer found that the group work of a class under normal conditions shows better results than the isolated work of individuals in a class. Moede, who was concerned with similar problems, proved that in a group the mid-level of accomplishment is reached so that there is a consequent merging in which the better type of students accomplishes less and the poorer type improves.

* * * * *

As indicated in the title of this paper I wish to call the attention of American educationists to some of the more recent publications of German pedagogy. We are concerned especially with two sorts of writings: those concerning the classroom and those dealing with the environment of the pupil. By comparing eight classes from the *Volksschule*, one class from the *Mittelschule*, and a class of defective children at Lubeck (North Germany)—these children's ages ranged from seven to thirteen—W. O. Döring² attempts to make a scientific contribution to the study of school grades. The Introduction is followed by a clear "Portrait of a Class" and brief sketches of the remaining classes investigated. In addition there are considered such matters as: group formation, leadership, antisocial phenomena, class spirit, social cooperation, relationship of the class as a group to the individual pupil, to the teacher, and to the school as a whole.

The author emphasizes that the value of his book lies less in its general results than in its suggestions for developing methods. We do not wish to belittle such suggestions, but as far as method is concerned, this study is hardly satisfactory. In the fields of social psychology and sociology Döring appears to be ill at ease—even in the German

²Waldemar Oskar Döring *Psychologie der Schulklassen, Eine empirische Untersuchung* (Osterwiech am Harz Verlag A. W. Zuckfeldt, 1927), 219 pp.

branches. He develops his material from his practical experience and knowledge of education and psychology. It is difficult to understand why he does not use the results of such well-known sociopsychological contributions as those of H. L. Stoltzenberg and A. Fischer.³ Just as regrettable is the fact that he makes no attempt to use the available material in the field dealing with the social psychology of childhood—such studies, for example, as those of Mayer, Moede, Reiniger, and Večerka⁴—to mention only a few. Consequently, his treatment is not always satisfactory. In the main, however, his work is successful and worthy of consideration. As a starting point for further study, it can no doubt be used and recommended.

A splendid contribution to educational sociology is *Soziologie der Volksschulklassen* by H. Schröder.⁵ The author is concerned with the task of unraveling the social complexities of children. His book is divided into five main divisions: (1) out of class; (2) in class (here are treated the social significance of physical and personal environment, social capacities of children, class spirit, mass reaction, interests, school friendships, ranks, class leadership, class offices, rivalry, opposition, conflict, outside influences; (3) a *Volksschule* class as an educative community; (4) life in class and the home; (5) continued effect in later life of class community life.

The foregoing study had its initial impetus in the thinking of Professor Dr. Eduard Spranger, one of Germany's great contemporary educators and philosophers. In addition to employing personal and other observations, autobiographies, and childhood reminiscences, the author utilized the answers written by children in response to definitely formulated questions.

³H. L. Stoltzenberg, *Soziopsychologie*, 1 Teil der Sozialpsychologie (1914), *Psychosozialogie* II Teil der Sozialpsychologie (Berlin: Curtius, 1922).

Alois Fischer, *Psychologie der Gesellschaft* (München: Verlag Teubner, 1922).

⁴Lucia Vecerka, *Das soziale Verhalten von Mädchen während der Reifezeit*, (Jena: G. Fischer, 1926).

⁵Hugo Schröder, *Soziologie der Volksschulklasse, Vom Gemeinschaftsleben der Volksschulkinder* (Halle a. Saale: Verlag Max Niemeyer, 1928, 216 pp.)

Not only in title, but also in method of treatment Schröder's book is sociological and may be considered as the best available German investigation on the subject. Indeed, it is one of the outstanding contributions produced anywhere and deserves to be known more generally. Though here and there greater detail might be helpful, yet there is apparent a thorough grasp of sociology, together with a sharp pedagogical sense. The whole book is written with remarkable clearness in good style.

The problems of pupil environment were recently treated in three monographs written respectively by Adolf Busemann, A. Argelander, and Walter Popp. Curiously enough none of this trio mentions the *Grundriss der Pädagogik als Wissenschaft. Im Anschluss an die Entwicklungslehre und die Soziologie*, which appeared in 1899 and was written by G. A. Lindner, though this was the pioneer German attempt to investigate the problems of pupil environment.

Argelander's⁶ study is a revised lecture and thus not very elaborate. It tries to show the influence of a child's capacities on its mental development and accomplishment, and the extent to which these are modified and restricted by environment. Argelander concludes that natural environment is effective principally in the formation of certain rather general types, while on the other hand, so far as social and economic *milieu* are concerned, there is only a potential influence on individual mental development. Furthermore, he finds that in linguistic influence, in the richness of imagery, and in the time span of adolescence there are at least three important periods of mental development which may be directly affected by all sorts of environmental stimuli. The frequency of such individual environmental stimuli, of course, determines their effect. In addition the individual's capacity to react must be considered

⁶ A. Argelander *Der Einfluss der Umwelt auf die geistige Entwicklung Langnesalza* (Verlag J. Beltz, 1928), 39 pp.

Within narrow limits Argelander offers a good introduction to certain problems. He utilizes a wealth of literature, listing as he does in his bibliography some 166 titles including studies in German, English, French, and Italian. The more important American contributions to educational sociology are not listed.

Busemann⁷ calls his study *Die Untersuchung, Beschreibung und Erklärung der Milieus, in denen die Jugend aufwächst und lebt, die erzogen werden soll und dieser Jugend selbst, soweit sie im Zusammenhang mit ihrem Milieu besondere Artung zeigt*. He has in mind the German family, living conditions, school, conditions among the proletariat, rural population, large cities. The study is only a fragment of what it will be later when revised and expanded. By environment Busemann means the totality of personal influences and experiences. In Part I he speaks generally of a *Milieutypologie*, and also comparatively, of relationships between environment and the individual, heredity and environment, influences of environment, experiences due to environment, as well as the initiative and suggestive relationships of the environment. Part II gives examples of pedagogical *milieu* types and considers the child's home life, environment of a child in the country, in the city, a proletariat child, environment and education, the school as a social and cultural environment.

Busemann's book is timely and is the first up-to-date German study of its kind. As such it deserves our consideration. Full of suggestion, it shows many problems in a new light. More elaborate further study, however, will be helpful. The book's main weakness is its discussion of the proletariat and the masses.

Concerning world structure, for example, man's task for one thing is to assert himself, for another, to be a cobearer. He can only accomplish this twofold task, if he is so ad-

⁷ Adolf Busemann, *Pädagogische Milieukunde I. Einführung in die allgemeine Milieukunde und in die pädagogische Milieutypologie* (Halle a. Saale Verlag Hermann Schroedel 1927), 202 pp.

justed as to be able to meet outside requirements with all his abilities, and if, moreover, he is attuned structurally, and has experienced a degree of adjustment to the structure of the objective-spiritual world. Those environmental influences which are vitally essential, Popp calls primary environmental influences, and that process adapted to life and development he terms adjustment (*Anpassung*). All environmental contacts, which do not come from the needs of an individual nature, but from an individual's adjustment to the outside world are secondary environmental influences. The reaction to which they lead an individual in the interest of his best maintenance and development, and which in the main consists in producing a less suitable development-variant, is called a "fitting-in" process (*Einpassung*).

Popp treats these general outside influences on the individual (1) as adjustment effect on human physical and mental development, (2) as adjustment effect on the imagination, emotions, intelligence, and will. After some remarks on education and its purposes and education for environment there follow expositions of the forms of environment, environmental influences on the child, and, finally, a chapter on "Heredity—Capacity—Education—Environment."

Popp's volume is noteworthy. It merits special recognition, since it contributes a well-thought-out and clearly written basis for an educational science of environment; in its way it is unique. Even though Popp has not made extensive use of sociological literature, neither German nor American, yet on the whole, we are glad the book has been published.

If in Busemann's work inclination to a systematic study of environment is visible, on the other hand Walter Popp has rendered a special service by actually presenting for the first time such a systematization.⁸ This contribution, too, is due somewhat to the inspiration of Professor Spranger,

⁸ Walter Popp, *Das pädagogische Milieu. Studien zum Milieubegriff und einer Milieupädagogik* (Langensalza: Beyer & Sons, 1928), 234 pp.

a German contributor to education whom we have already mentioned. Popp presumes to offer no more than a study "of the theory of the concept of environment, an outline of the educational aspect of environment." A later study is expected to present a systematic *Milieupädagogik*. For his material the author depends upon official reports from welfare institutions and juvenile courts.

At the outset Popp differentiates between the *absolute* exterior environment, i.e., the large circle which includes whatever is extrinsic to a given individual, and the *subjective* exterior environment, i.e., the smaller circle within the large circle which contains the *grand total* of all those component parts with which an individual actually comes into contact. There is a difference in the relationship to objects of the exterior world which is found in the divers frequencies and intensities of contact. To the environment, therefore, belong only those persons, objects of the exterior world's spiritual influence, of which the individual is independent or, rather, set apart. The narrower environment is that circle whose component parts are in almost constant and thus very close contact with the individual. To the extent that every individual has a typical and characteristic environment, one may also speak of his individual environment. No doubt in the several component parts he has succeeded in giving us a thoroughgoing and unified piece of work, which engenders in us a hope for further contributions from the same author.

* * * * *

In conclusion, it should be noted—and we believe we have shown—that while a science of educational sociology has not yet been achieved in German, still from practical life on the one hand and the suggestions of sociology on the other, the way is being opened for a new educational sociology which, as we noted, embraces two disciplines: pedagogical sociology and sociological pedagogy. For the practice of educational sociology—indeed for education in general—both are of great importance.

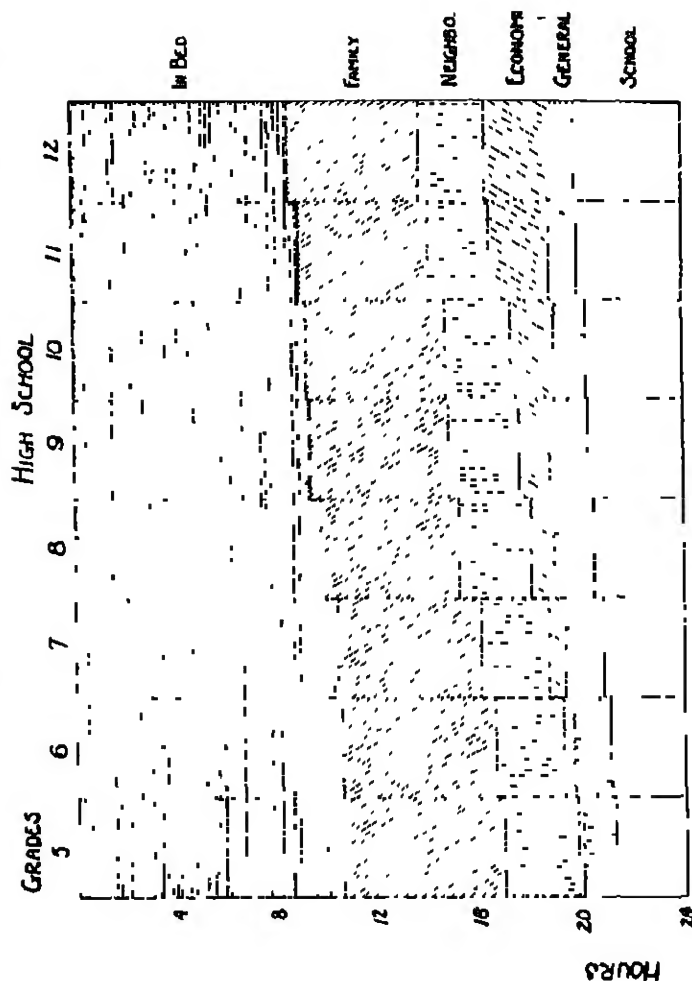
NONSCHOOL EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES

F. R. CLOW

The chart shows how pupils in the schools of Oshkosh, in grades five to twelve inclusive, divide their time between the various agencies which in large degree determine their activities and consequently their education.

In 1915 we got returns from nearly two thousand children about their occupations for one evening from the time school let out until they went to bed. In 1916 we again got similar returns, making nearly four thousand in all. The following table is based on these returns:

TIME DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS IN OSHKOSH PUBLIC SCHOLS



The table on which this chart is based contains subdivisions as follows:

Family sick or caring for health, toilet and meals, useful work, and other occupations at home.

Neighborhood at a party or social gathering, recreation (desultory, organized, and supervised), local travel, outings.

Economic as producer, work away from home for pay, as consumer, shopping, at movies, pool halls, league games, and commercialized amusements.

General Culture (not connected with school) church, public library or museum, reading, study or practice of music, and other arts.

School time spent on school premises, school work done at home or elsewhere.

In determining the average the year was divided into three kinds of time: school days, week-ends (Saturdays and Sundays), and vacations, and statistics were compiled for each. To combine the three and weight the average, the figure for a given occupation for school days was multiplied by five, for week ends by two and for vacations by three. The three products were added and the total was divided by ten. A fourth kind of time might also be distinguished which these statistics disregard, namely, travel away from home and the local community. These statistics also fail to take account of the occupations of children when they are absent from the regular school sessions.

PERCENTAGES OF OSHKOSH SCHOOL CHILDREN ENGAGED IN SPECIFIED
OCCUPATIONS ON THE EVENING OF ONE DAY IN EACH OF THE
YEARS 1915 AND 1916, AVERAGED BY GRADES FOR TEN
SCHOOLS AND FOR THE FOUR CLASSES OF THE
HIGH SCHOOL

NUMBER OF RETURNS	GRADES				HIGH SCHOOL
	V	VI	VII	VIII	
	705	617	597	599	1401
	%	%	%	%	%
Did school work at home	15	18	27	30	64
Did other reading ..	54	61	65	72	63
Other studying (music, etc.).	15	18	24	27	24
Useful work at home ..	67	67	60	65	59
Worked elsewhere for pay ..	8	10	12	15	13
Attended theater or movies ..	9	10	9	14	18
Retired before ten o'clock .	91	86	86	79	56

These figures are full of meaning, but space cannot be taken here for their interpretation. They give factual material for treating certain questions about which we have had only random observations hitherto.

Our later work at Oshkosh has aimed at quantitative results and not merely qualitative. How much time, or what proportion of the child's total time, is spent on each occupation? This has necessitated a restudy of those returns of 1915-1916 and the getting of additional returns for hours of sleep, week-ends, holidays, and vacations, and the combination of all with proper weighting into a single average day for each grade. That work is still incomplete. In the compilation of this chart it has been necessary, in places, to resort to estimates, to supplement the statistical basis. The chart is therefore provisional and subject to correction

It has long been realized that the school controls only a small proportion of the child's time. This chart shows that the proportion in Oshkosh rises from about one twelfth in the lower grades to nearly one sixth in the high school. This is considerably more than the proportion in many states and more than the average for the United

States. The Bureau of Education report for 1920, which used the census statistics for that year, gives the following data:

Average duration of school...	161.3 days
Children 5-18 years of age.....	27,728,788
Daily average attendance...	16,248,997

The duration of school, 161.3 days, is 44.2 per cent of the year. The daily average attendance is 58.5 per cent of the population of school age. Multiplying one of these per cents by the other gives 25.857 per cent as the average proportion of the days in which children of school age are found in school. Later reports of the Bureau show that the attendance has improved to some extent since 1920; also that the duration of school has increased.

Then when one half of the children get to school on one half of the days, how much time do they spend there? The standard length of the daily sessions of public schools in the United States is six hours. One fourth of six hours is an hour and a half. Applying the percentages exactly gives 93 minutes as the average daily schooling which the average child in the United States received in 1920. Of course there is probably no school with a session of 93 minutes. This "average daily schooling" is only a statistical concept, but it does give clearer realization of the limited opportunity which the school has to direct the activities of children.

And of course also the influence of the school reaches beyond the school session. The first item in the table given above, on school work done at home, shows how frequently this extended influence operates. The percentage of the returns which mentioned doing schoolwork at home rose from 15 in the fifth grade to 64 in the high school, and to 69 in the junior year of the high school, which was not given separately in the table. To bring out the results of this influence, two of my students selected the returns from 266 pupils who were in the eighth grade in 1915 and in the

freshman year of the high school in 1916, and then they found which of these pupils subsequently graduated from high school. Of those who reported studying at home on the days of the two years for which returns were collected, 69 per cent graduated. Of those who studied at home on one of these days but not the other, 45 per cent graduated. And of those who did not report home study for either of the two days, only 33 per cent graduated. This is the most definite result we have found of a nonschool agency. We cannot claim that home study doubles the chance of graduating from the high school, for in some cases it doubtless only marked the pupils who were studious enough to bring work home with them and also to make good in the high school, as distinguished from those who lacked the ability and the motive to do either. But something must be attributed to the home which holds the pupil up to his responsibilities and gives him help if necessary.

In the same way we divided the 266 pupils into three groups according to their reports about each of the other occupations listed in the above table, and found the percentage of each group who subsequently graduated from the high school. The results, along with the results on the school work done at home which are set forth in the preceding paragraph, are given in the following table:

PERCENTAGES OF PUPILS, AMONG 266 IN THE EIGHTH GRADE IN 1915
AND IN THE NINTH GRADE IN 1916, WHO ENGAOED IN SPECIFIED
OCCUPATIONS AND SUBSEQUENTLY GRADUATED FROM
HIGH SCHOOL

OCCUPATIONS	BOTH YEARS	ONE YEAR	NEITHER YEAR
	%	%	%
Did school work at home	69	45	33
Did other reading... ..	62	39	51
Did other studying.	68	48	45
Did useful work at home	64	40	43
Worked elsewhere for pay	38	24	51
Attended movies	57	32	51
Retired before ten o'clock	62	46	33

Note that in four of the seven items the "one-year" pupils rank below the "both" and the "neither," suggesting that those who held to a consistent policy gained over those who pursued a shifting policy. The low rank of those who worked for pay as compared with those who did not requires several interpretations (1) In some cases, especially when regular, such work is consistent with subsequent achievement. (2) Such a boy may become so interested and proficient in some vocation that he will quit school in order to pursue it. (3) A pupil may be compelled by his own or his parents' necessities to devote excessive time to earning and so incapacitate himself for satisfactory progress in school.

A few other comparisons have been tried without yielding definite results, and there are still others which look promising. The various ways of spending the out-of-school hours might be correlated with subsequent securing of a bachelor's degree or with success in life as measured by some scale such as salary or professional rank, but so far we have not had the resources of talent, time, and money for carrying them through to completion. We have also felt that we should first complete the simpler study of the quantitative distribution of the child's time before going further into the more difficult search for results.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department titles—and where possible descriptions—of current research projects now in process in educational sociology, and also those projects in kindred fields of interest to educational sociology. Correspondence upon proposed projects and methods will be welcomed.

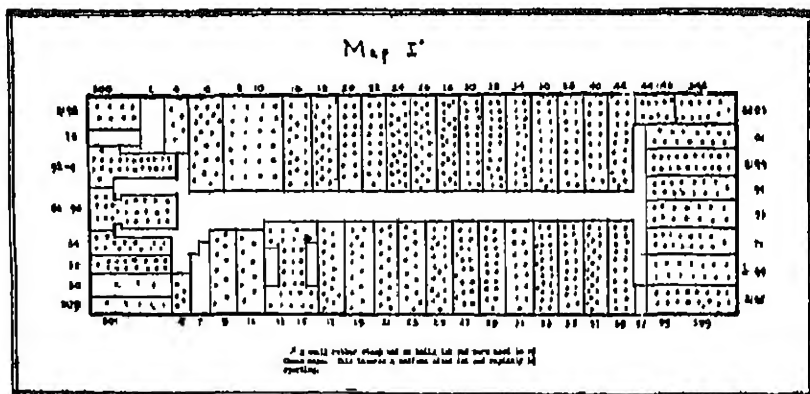
POPULATION MAPS TO STUDY CROWDING¹

Granted that we wish to use population maps to study conditions of crowding in the home, e.g. in the living quarters, rather than of vehicular space, play space, pedestrian space, etc., the following is submitted as a technique superior to the usual population map. Population maps, as formerly used, are darkened to show the number of individuals per acre or square mile, regardless of the number of stories to which the buildings are reared. It is submitted that taking into consideration the number of stories will give a fairer description of the conditions of crowding in the abodes of a city, or portion of a city. By taking this factor into consideration, we may compare more fairly, also, various cities, towns, etc., as well as various portions of any one city.

It is said, for instance, that Manhattan Island is the most densely populated portion of the United States. In actuality, however, are the people packed more closely in their homes, or are they merely spread out vertically instead of horizontally? And again, is the Lower East Side more crowded than Long Island City? Do our population maps compare these fairly? And if not, where are the advantages placed? How much more or less crowded is Harlem in its living quarters than the Lower East Side, or

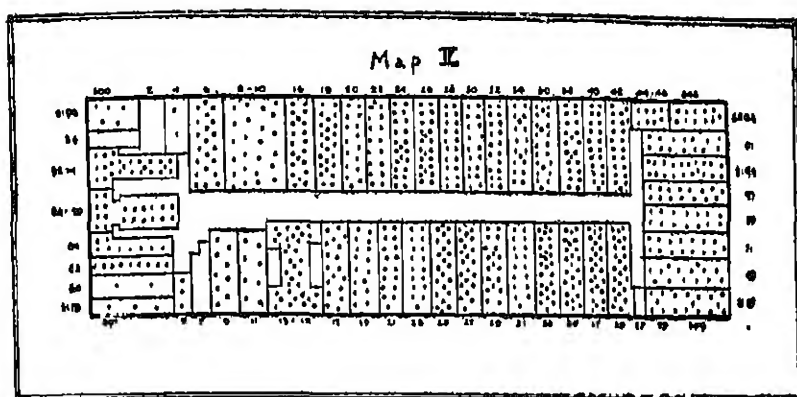
¹ This work was done in the Boys' Club Study now under way at New York University (under the direction of Frederic M. Thrasher) in connection with a study of crowding being made of the region under intensive investigation

than the Hull House region in Chicago, or than the slums of Atlanta, Georgia? We suggest the following technique as a quick and easy method of comparing any two regions, and a method much superior to the ordinary population maps.

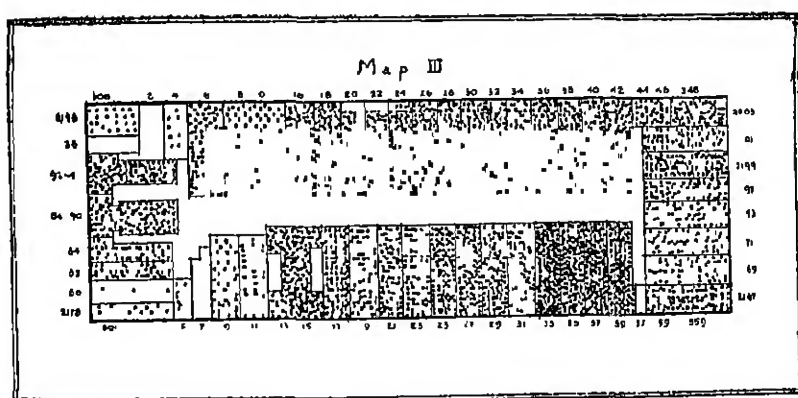


*A small rubber stamp and an india ink pad were used to spot these maps. This insures a uniform sized dot and rapidity in spotting.

Map I shows the actual number of people per floor (figures taken from the New York State 1925 census) of living space. On the streets, one half of a story was deducted for businesses reported on the main floor; on the avenues, the full first story was deducted. Thus, if the population at 305 E—— Street was 115, the building 5 stories high, with a store on the main floor; 115 would be divided by $4\frac{1}{2}$, giving a result of 25 individuals per story of 25 foot frontage. In the mapping of a more recent set of population figures now being gathered, it is planned to deduct for the proportion of the building vacant as well as for that used for business. Even on as homogeneous a section as one city block, we see wide divergences. No. 13-15, a new-law type of tenement, 6 stories up, for instance, shows considerably less crowding than does No. 37.



But to carry the method further. It was noted that the number of stories generally ran from 4 to 6 with the majority at 5; so the total population of the various buildings was consistently divided by 5, with Map II as a result. The difference between the two maps is much less than was expected. The similarity, in fact, is that which prompted the writer to make her suggestion; namely, that when population maps, especially of urban regions, are made, that the population figures be divided by the average height of the buildings for such regions mapped.



Map III shows the population by actual population figures.

Now suppose, for comparison, we studied a region in Sunnyside, Long Island City, a newly developed region, rapidly growing, where height of building is restricted to three stories. We make a map of a block in Sunnyside, comparable to Map III above; compare it with Map III; and exclaim at the extreme difference in crowding conditions. However, if we compare maps of the same blocks, constructed in the manner of either Maps I or II above, we find the difference is more than halved; that is to say, the original population figures of the region mapped above would be divided by an average of five (Map I) or strictly by five (Map II); whereas, the original figures of Sunnyside would be divided by an average of two, or strictly by two.

The advantage of this as a technique is the speed with which it may be applied. Comparisons considering the number of rooms, or the number of square feet, or the number of cubic feet per person, are obviously superior to the method suggested above; but usually neither time nor finances permit the extremely laborious countings, measurements, and calculations necessary to obtain such figures. In comparison, the time taken to obtain the actual, or average, number of stories, e.g., to a city block, is negligible

MAZIE EARLE WAGNER

BOOK REVIEWS

The Cosmopolitan Evening School, by JOHN F. FRIESE
New York: The Century Company, 1929, 382 pages

This book will be found of great value to all who are engaged in adult education. Possibly its greatest appeal will be to the administrators in relatively small communities who are faced with the problem of meeting the needs of the adult population, but do not know exactly where to begin.

The underlying philosophy is sound and follows along the lines laid down in the report of the subcommittee to the Committee on Adult Education of the American Vocational Association in Los Angeles, December, 1927, of which committee Dr. Prosser was chairman. The administrator who needs to sell the idea of adult education to his community will find many talking points in this report and in Friese's book. The author in his eight years of experience in St. Cloud, Minnesota, has learned many tricks of the trade and he gives the reader the benefit of his experiences in this volume.

He takes the reader through the whole process from the preliminary planning to an analysis of the administrative duties, with bypaths into the questions of State and Federal aid, selection and supervision of teachers, determination of curricula and courses of study, successful methodologies, and ways of getting the administrative machinery to function smoothly. His chapter on "Advertising" is good and full of excellent suggestions.

This volume maintains the high standard of the Century Vocational Series. The author's style is lucid and enjoyable and every bit as good as the style of his *Exploring the Manual Arts*.

RALPH E. PICKETT

Serving the Child in Fargo, Part Three of Final Report
of Fargo Demonstration. New York: The Commonwealth Fund Division of Publications, 1928, 127 pages

The Child Health Demonstration Committee of the Commonwealth Fund set out in a five-year experiment to demonstrate the value of a carefully planned program of health supervision and instruction in the public schools. *Serving the Child in Fargo* is part three of the Committee's report. This part was preceded by the publication of part one, *Five Years in Fargo*, and part two, *Public Health Work in Fargo, an Appraisal*. The present volume includes a discussion of the following topics: Health Service for Infants and Preschool Children, School Health Services, Maternity Service, Other Nursing Services, Indices of Accomplishment, and The Demonstration as an Experience in Community Self-education.

The most significant part of the report is the chapter dealing with the indices of accomplishment for two reasons; namely, first, the fact that a carefully planned health program in the community can decrease mortality and morbidity; and second, the fact that the results of community and health work can be measured in terms of changes in community and individual welfare. We have been content in the past with the measurements of the results of schoolroom instruction. This sort of measurement has served its function and the next step in educational measurement will undoubtedly center upon the measurement of social changes. This publication takes another step in that direction. The book will be read with interest by every teacher interested in health and also by all persons interested in the measurement of the social result of schoolroom instruction.

E. GEORGE PAYNE

The Work of the Public Schools, by the Board of Education, Rochester, N. Y., 1928, 612 pages.

This document is the report of a self-survey of the schools of Rochester, authorized by the Board of Education of that city by committees of its own teachers and supervisors. That the workers had wisdom as well as zeal in their undertaking is expressed in Superintendent Weet's Introduction when he says, "Balanced judgment in these matters requires the point of view of those outside the system." So specialists in different fields were brought to Rochester from time to time for consultation and advice, using the process of the survey. The result of this combination of intimate knowledge and impersonal observation is a really scientific study in the field of education.

The investigation was authorized in 1924, so it has evidently been about four years in the making. The report contains seven chapters entitled The Fundamental Studies, Health and Natural Science, Social and Civic Studies, Fine and Practical Arts, Elective Subjects in Secondary Schools, Specialized Activities, and Child Accounting and Teacher Training. Each chapter opens with a statement of the specific objectives of a given field. Then follows an account of the application of various tests and measures with reproduction of graphs and tables interspersed. The chapters close with a frank summary of the findings, together with recommendations for future betterment.

As one reads this report, he is impressed by its scientific procedure, its sincerity, and its adequacy within the reasonable limits which it sets up. There is pictured, too, the effective way in which Rochester searches out the individual and then tries by one means or another to conserve and develop whatever strengths he has, whether mental or physical.

Only one thing is lacking in this report which might be reasonably expected. We are told nothing of Rochester as to its size, population, industries, or peculiar needs. There is nothing to tell us except by impli-

cation just how the Rochester public school fits Rochester. Perhaps the authors will treat this phase of their educational problem in a later volume.

GEORGE C. MINARD

Population and Its Distribution, by J. Walter Thompson Company. New York: J. Walter Thompson Company, 1926, 371 pages.

The J. Walter Thompson Company has divided this book into five main parts. Part I gives the population of the United States for 1920 and 1925 by States and cities.

Part II lists "State summaries of population by city-size groups and kindred State totals for 1920, followed by 1925 estimates for cities by city-size groups, and detailed lists of the principal cities grouped by size (1925)." Here we find the total population of the State, the per cent increase over 1920, the number of families (estimated) for the State; the number of farms in the State. There is also a list for each State of all cities and villages with a population of at least 1,000. Part III: "State and county figures for the number of Federal income-tax returns (1922) compared with population (1920) and the population per income tax return for each county in the United States. . ."

Part IV. "Retail shopping areas—figures from Part III grouped into 679 retail shopping areas, showing population and tax returns for 679 centers and surrounding territory, with the number of department stores in these regions"

Part V "Distributors—wholesale and retail in principal lines of trade. A specially prepared count of the number of wholesale and retail concerns in various lines of trade for states and for all cities having an estimated population of over 25,000 in 1925." A rather careful defining of trades is included on pages 307-309.

This book is written primarily for those interested in markets. It answers the questions. How is the population of the United States distributed? What is the average income of the individual in a given region? What are the retail shopping areas? How many distributors, wholesale and retail, in the principal lines of trade, are there in a given area? etc

However, it would seem that the wealth of material included in this volume on the various States, counties, cities, and villages would be of considerable value from an economical or sociological point of view. The economist or sociologist interested either in a particular region that he may be surveying, or in comparing various regions, should find this book a very helpful source.

MAZIE EARLE WAGNER

Traditional Examinations and New-Type Tests, by C. W. ODELL. New York: The Century Company, 1928. 469 pages.

This book is a very much needed treatment of the subject of the examination. No other work has made such a systematic analysis of the whole topic as is here presented. Other discussions of the new-type test have left the impression, corrected by this author, that the old-fashioned examination is altogether out-of-date in educational work.

The author starts by giving arguments pro and con concerning the use of the examination and points out the relative advantages of standardized tests and tests prepared by the teacher. He sets up criteria for good examinations and shows how to make and give such examinations of both the old type and the new. In the latter part of the book, pages 255-421, the various types of the new-type examination are presented in much detail with many illustrations in various fields so that a teacher should have no difficulty in following the models given. These include the single answer, multiple answer, alternative, completion, matching, incorrect statement, and miscellaneous forms.

There is a good discussion of the marking system, the use of objective tests in institutions of higher learning, and a bibliography of one hundred items. The treatment throughout is simple and in good English style.

The greatest weakness of the text is found in the discussion of the distribution of marks which are got from the new-type test. There should have been a number of illustrations of various kinds of data, with a more detailed and graphic analysis of their use in specific class tests and a more definite listing of the detailed procedure of assigning grades. The reader leaves this part of the discussion with a feeling that it has not been made practical enough. On the whole, however, the treatment should give the teacher of the elementary, secondary, or college level a very definite help in the matter of constructing and using examinations of the various kinds.

PAUL V. WEST

The American Community in Action, by JESSE FREDERICK STEINER. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1928, 392 pages.

Sociology instructors who desire to provide their students with concrete case material for the stimulation of discussion of such sociological concepts as conflict, isolation, segregation, assimilation, social distance, and social forces, will welcome the vivid pictures of present-day American life contained in this collection of community records. The majority of the twenty case studies presented are concerned with rural and small-town communities in thirteen of the United States. In these studies special em-

phasis is placed on conflict situations, instances of successful *coöperation*, crises in development, and factors in disorganization and disintegration. Little attempt is made to discuss either *social conditions and problems* or ways of bringing about improvements. The purpose of the records is rather to show how the *interplay of social forces* has brought about either growth or stagnation and decline.

LUCY J. CHAMBERLAIN

Guide to Material on Crime and Criminal Justice, by A. F. KUHLMAN. New York: H. W. Wilson and Company, 1929, 633 pages.

A classified bibliography, prepared by the committee on Survey of Research on Crime and Criminal Justice of the Social Science Research Council, containing all titles—books, pamphlets, and papers in periodicals—dealing with *crime and criminal justice in the United States* published or in manuscript before January 1, 1927. The titles are presented under *seventeen classifications*: introduction, offenders and causes of crime, administration of criminal justice, criminal law, police, judicial organization and administration, criminal procedure, punishment, institutional treatment, prisons, jails, reformatories, pardon, parole, probation, the juvenile court, and crime prevention. There are 13,274 titles listed, each with an annotation describing its content. The libraries in which the research student may find the materials are indicated by means of the Union List library symbols.

Growing Up, by KARL DE SCHWEINITZ. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929, 106 pages.

This is a book with which every parent and every teacher should be familiar. Many parents who have come under the influence of the mental hygienists, though convinced that they should tell their children how they came into the world, do not know how to do it. In this delightful little book, printed in large type and filled with beautiful illustrations, Karl de Schweinitz, who has two children of his own, tells children in a fascinating and entirely satisfactory way the story of how they "become alive and are born and grow."

American Marriage and Family Relationships, by W. F. OGBURN and E. R. GRAVES. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1928, 510 pages.

This book is divided into two parts. Part I, entitled *Modern Marriage and Family Relationships*, is written by E. R. Graves. It consists of the usual commonplaces, and evidently was included because the publishers believed a purely statistical study would not sell. Fortunately it is but 122 pages in length. Part II, by W. F. Ogburn,

entitled *A Statistical Study of American Marriage*, is a brilliant statistical characterization of the family in America, of its stability, and of the various social factors associated with family stability and family instability. It constitutes an invaluable source book on the American family.

Children in the Nursery School, by HARRIET M. JOHNSON.
New York: John Day, 1928, 345 pages.

A description of the philosophy, organization, and activities of the nursery school of the Bureau of Educational Experiment. A peculiarly significant and timely book in view of the increasing public interest in preschool education.

Exercises in Statistical Methods, by R. E. CHADDOCK and
F. E. CROXTON. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1928.

A collection of statistical problems, designed to serve as a basis for a laboratory course. It is planned primarily to be used with Chaddock, *Principles and Methods of Statistics*, but should prove equally effective when used in conjunction with other elementary texts on statistical methods.

The Child in Primitive Society, by NATHAN MILLER. New
York: Brentano's, 1928, 307 pages.

This latest addition to Brentano's Library of Educational Psychology deals with the socialization of the child among preliterate peoples. Topics covered are: primitive notions of the child, the burden of childhood, the desire for children, the name, preliminary orientation of childhood, primitive education—initiation and suggestion, primitive education—training of the child, inheritance and succession, social forces and the child. A useful and interesting compendium of the observations of ethnologists.

Fundamentals of Objective Psychology, by J. F. DASHIELL.
Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1928, 588 pages.

An introduction to psychology, designed as a textbook for a full (two semester) introductory course in psychology, written from a consistently "behavioristic" viewpoint, and regarding all behavior as psychological process. Covers thoroughly the conventional psychological topics, and introduces a large amount of recent experimental material.

The Future of Nakedness, by JOHN LANGDON-DAVIES.
New York: Harper and Brothers, 1928, 117 pages.

An entertaining discussion of the social history and probably future of modesty as reflected in clothing. Interestingly displays the influence of cultural patterns in shaping individual attitudes.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

The second annual luncheon of the School of Education of New York University at the Hotel Pennsylvania was notable for at least two reasons: first, the new National Commissioner of Education, Dr. William John Cooper, was present and gave an inspiring address upon the "Qualities of the Leader"; second, the students of the School of Education presented to the National Commissioner an oil painting of a former commissioner, Chancellor Elmer Ellsworth Brown of New York University. The painting is the work of Professor Robert Kissack, head of the art-education department of the School of Education. The painting of Chancellor Brown is to hang in the offices of the Bureau of Education in the Department of the Interior at Washington. Dr. John J. Loftus, principal of Public School 80, Brooklyn, and president of the New York City Principals' Association, was reelected president of the Alumni Association. All other officers of the Association were continued for another year.

* * *

Mr. H. R. Thompson of Frisco, Texas, formerly superintendent of schools at that place, has been elected to the principalship of a new elementary school at Manhasset, New York. Mr. Thompson receives his A.M. degree from New York University in June.

* * *

Dr. Ira Gast, who has for several years been principal of Public School 8 of Jersey City, has been promoted to Public School 32 in the same system.

* * *

President George F. Zook, of the University of Akron, has declined the presidency of the University of Louisville, which had been offered him at the annual salary of \$15,000.

* * *

Dr. Max Meyer, professor of experimental psychology at the University of Missouri from 1900 until the recent difficulties in regard to a student questionnaire, was unanimously elected president of the Southern Society for Philosophy and Psychology at the meeting held at the University of Kentucky on March 30.

* * *

Professor Lawrence Pumpelly, chairman of the department of Romance languages at Cornell University, has been made a Knight of the Legion of Honor of France in recognition of his many years of service in the interest of France, as a teacher of Romance languages and as an aide and interpreter during the World War.

* * *

Dr. George Andrews, professor of organ in the Oberlin Conservatory of Music, has completed fifty years in connection with the Oberlin Musical Union, twenty years as organist, and thirty years as director. He will retire from active connection with the Union at the conclusion of the spring concert, when the Union sings.

Charles M. Robinson, superintendent of schools at Lincoln, Massachusetts, for six years, resigned and is now principal of the junior high school at Bingham

* * *

Edna Gerkin, director of health education, Durfee High School, Fall River, Massachusetts, has been appointed to go to the Philippines for two years to assist in the development of a health-education program.

* * *

A. F. Stauffer was recently appointed assistant superintendent of schools of Jersey City, New Jersey.

* * *

Superintendent Henry Smith, Antigo, Wisconsin, resigned to be superintendent at South Milwaukee. His successor at Antigo is R. E. Balliette

* * *

A. J. Mitchell, former principal of the Nogales, Arizona, high school, has been elected superintendent of schools.

* * *

Arthur H. Hilton, headmaster of a country high school, has been reelected by the Government of Australia to make a study of the agricultural high schools of the United States, under the auspices of the Carnegie Foundation.

* * *

Dr. Donald Young, of the department of sociology of the University of Pennsylvania, edited the November *Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. The issue is brought out as a separate volume, entitled *The American Negro*. It is a symposium composed of nearly forty contributions from prominent authorities of both racial groups and deals with manifold aspects of the interracial problem. Dr. E. George Payne, of New York University, is one of the contributors to this issue

* * *

Dr. T. J. Headlie, Rutgers University, is the new president of the American Association of Economic Entomologists. He has been head of the department of entomology at the State University since 1912.

* * *

Dr. G. B. Harrison, of the English department of King's College, London, has accepted the invitation of the University of Chicago to be the first holder of the Frederick Carpenter Visiting Chair of English.

* * *

Dr. Samuel Edwin Weber, superintendent at Charleston, West Virginia, has been appointed associate superintendent of schools at Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, at a salary of \$10,000

* * *

Dr. Oliver C. Lockhart, head of the department of economics and finance at the University of Buffalo, has been granted leave of absence to accompany Professor E. W. Kemmerer as a member of the Commission of Financial Advisers to the Government of China

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Professor Lauder W. Jones, who holds the Hepburn Chair of Chemistry at Princeton University, has left for France, where he will take up his new work as European director of the division of natural sciences of the Rockefeller Foundation. Dr. Jones succeeds in this work Dean Augustus Trowbridge, dean of the Princeton Graduate School, who was abroad several years.

* * *

Professor William C. Bagley has accepted a place on the Committee of the National Society for the Study of Education, which is to prepare a yearbook on "The Textbook."

* * *

Dr. Sao-Ke Alfred Sze, '01, Chinese Minister, has been elected an honorary member of the governing board of the council of Cornell University in recognition of his many years of distinguished service in the activities of that organization.

* * *

The department of sociology and anthropology at the University of Chicago has been dissolved and reconstructed as two separate departments. The department of sociology will be under the chairmanship of Dr. Ellsworth Faris, while the chairman for anthropology is Dr. Fay-Cooper Cole.

* * *

Fred E. Smith, deputy State superintendent of South Dakota, has been appointed superintendent of schools of Windsor, Connecticut.

* * *

F. H. Barbee, assistant superintendent of schools at Kansas City, Missouri, has left for St. Joseph, where he has been appointed superintendent.

* * *

Dr. L. P. Jack, principal of Manchester College, Oxford, and editor of the *Hibbert Journal* for more than twenty-five years, has made a six weeks' tour of America, speaking on adult education.

* * *

The fourth annual conference of normal schools and teachers colleges of the metropolitan and Atlantic seaboard area was held under the auspices of the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education at the Hotel Pennsylvania, April 19 and 20. These conferences of faculties of the colleges, superintendents, principals, and students of these institutions have grown from year to year, both in numbers and the character of the work. The chairman of this conference is Ambrose L. Suhrie, professor of teachers-college and normal-school education, New York, and associated with him are the following: associate chairmen, William C. Bagley, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University; John S. Roberts, district superintendent of schools, New York City; Ned H. Dearborn, director of teacher training, New York State Department of Education; Roscoe L. West, director of teacher training, New Jersey State Department of Education;

Alanzo F. Myers, director of teacher training, Connecticut State Department of Education; secretary, Fred M. Richmond, State Normal School, Newark, New Jersey, treasurer, Miss Anna M. Fuda, New York Training School for Teachers, 135th Street and St. Nicholas Terrace; associate student chairman, Elizabeth Ertel, president senior class, New York Training School for Teachers (Manhattan); Edward Leonard, president of student organization, Jamaica Training School for Teachers (Queens), and Bernard Donovan, president of fourth-year class, Maxwell Training School for Teachers (Brooklyn).

CONTRIBUTORS' PAGE

Professor Frederick R. Clow is head of the department of social science and professor of sociology, State Teachers College, Oshkosh, Wisconsin. Professor Clow is a native of Minnesota. He received his bachelor's degree from Carleton College and his doctorate from Harvard. Professor Clow is one of the pioneers in the movement to modify educational techniques and procedure in keeping with social principles and practice. He is the author of *Principles of Sociology with Educational Applications*. The book was the outgrowth of the author's years of teaching sociology to teachers and college students. Professor Clow has been one of the active members of the National Society of Educational Sociologists.

* * *

Dr. L. H. Ad. Geck's address is Berlin, N. W. 87, Franklinstrasse 6, Germany.

* * *

Dr. Walter C. Reckless, associate professor of sociology at Vanderbilt University, has been associated with Professor Ernst Krueger, who has recently been appointed chairman of that department. Dr. Reckless, who received his Ph. D. from the University of Chicago, made a notable study of vice areas in Chicago. He has been associated with Professor Krueger in the development of a child-behavior clinic under sociological auspices for the social agencies of Nashville. He is one of the joint authors of a new volume on *Sociological Techniques* which has been previously announced in the department of research of THE JOURNAL.

THE TEACHER'S CODE

I am MOTHER of my children, and I try to train their minds and morals and to love them as my own.

I am FATHER of my boys and girls, and I watch, guard, and help them over the hard places.

I am PREACHER without creed, and I lead my children "beside the still waters."

I am TEACHER of youth, that they may feel and know what has been and is to be.

I am SERVANT of the State, and I shall fulfill my obligation to pupils, parents, and community, without fear or favor, except before God and Country.

I pray for guidance that I may lead; for strength that I may sustain; for wisdom that I may teach.

I give thanks for the opportunity that is mine to serve my children whom the homes of my country entrust to my keeping.

God grant me grace and gratitude,
And give me faith and attitude
To love and lead, to preach and teach
To serve in all, while serving each.

—D. H. Cook, General Manager, National Teachers Agency (copied from April, 1929, issue of the new journal, *Educational Service*)

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